REPORT RESUMES

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THE LEGISLATIVE DRIVE IN HAWAII TO PROVIDE EQUAL EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES PROVIDED THE IMPETUS FOR THIS STUDY. INCLUDED HERE ARE--(1) A PROBLEM STATEMENT AND DEFINITIONS, (2) THE STUDY'S APPROACH, (3) PROCEDURES AND LIMITATIONS, (4) METHODS AND CRITERIA FOR IDENTIFYING CULTURAL DEPRIVATION, AND (5) SELECTED REVIEWS OF THE CHARACTERISTICS OF EDUCATIONALLY DEPRIVED CHILDREN, COMPENSATORY EDUCATION ISSUES, HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVES, COMPENSATORY EDUCATION APPROACHES, EVALUATIVE COMMENTS, AND PROMISING PROPOSALS. THE INVENTORY OF COMPENSATORY EDUCATION PROGRAMS PRESENTS LEGAL PROVISIONS, PROGRAM ADMINISTRATION, TYPES OF ACTIVITIES, THE SERVICES AND FUNDING OF THE SPECIAL MOTIVATION PROGRAM, THE VOCATIONAL EDUCATION ACT OF 1963, THE ECONOMIC OPPORTUNITY ACT OF 1964, HAWAIIAN HOME LANDS ACT, THE ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION ACT OF 1965-TITLE I, THE DEMONSTRATION CITIES AND METROPOLITAN DEVELOPMENT ACT-TITLE I, AND THE PROGRESSIVE NEIGHBORHOODS PROGRAM. ANALYSES AND CONCLUSIONS AND THEIR IMPLICATIONS FOR ADMINISTRATION, PROGRAMS, AND FUNDING ARE SUMMARIZED. NEEDED ARE--(1) A SINGLE ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE, (2) LONG-RANGE, INTERMEDIATE, AND SHORT-RANGE PLANS, (3) CLEAR RATIONALE DEVELOPMENT, (4) FUNDING PROCEDURES REVIEW, AND (5) TEACHER-TRAINING PROGRAMS. THIS DOCUMENT IS AVAILABLE FROM THE HAWAII STATE DEPT. OF EDUCATION, HONOLULU, HAWAII FOR $1.25. (WR)

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STATE OF HAWAII

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
and
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Report No. 4, 1968

STATE OF HAWAII

QUEST for COMPENSATORY EDUCATION in the STATE OF HAWAII

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Report No. 4, 1968

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
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FOREWORD

This publication entitled "The Quest for Compensatory Education in the State of Hawaii" was the result of the project undertaken in response to House Resolution 184, H.D. 1 (General Session of 1967). The apparent intent of the Resolution was to provide equal educational opportunity for pupils residing in limited environment communities.

The purpose of this study was three-fold: (1) to describe the new trends and practices in compensatory education programs from current literature; (2) to review the programs which have been initiated in Hawaii; and (3) to provide information that might be useful to educational planners in improving current efforts and in planning for and implementing future compensatory education programs.

The research, production and publication of this report is the result of a unique cooperative working arrangement between the Department of Education and the Legislative Reference Bureau. The joint venture approach exemplifies what can be accomplished when the efforts and resources of State agencies are cooperatively utilized.

This report would not have been possible without the assistance of many individuals and agencies. We are especially grateful to Mr. Harry Tokushige, Miss Karen Meahl, Dr. Hatsuko Kawahara, Dr. William Savard, Mr. Charles Araki, Dr. Clarence Matsumotoya, Dr. Elizabeth Tapscott, Mr. George Kagehiro, Mrs. Clara Kanagawa, Mr. Lionel Aono, Mr. William Waters, Mr. Albert Feirer, Dr. Albert Miyasato, Dr. Arthur Mann, Mr. Francis Hatanaka, Mr. Teichiro Hirata, Mr. Domingo Los Banos, Mr. Masao Aizawa and Dr. Shinkichi Shimabukuro, all of the Department of Education; Mr. Walter Chun of the Hawaii Office of Economic Opportunity; Mr. Theodore Ruhig, Executive Secretary of the Advisory Commission on Manpower and Full Employment; and Dr. Torlef Nelson, Mr. Jack Nagoshi and Dr. John Crossley of the University of Hawaii. We are especially indebted to Mrs. Shiho Nunes, Associate Director of the Hawaii Curriculum Center, for ordering and editing major portions of the report, to Mrs. May Tamura for editing the footnotes, and to Mrs. Irene Naka and Miss Laraine Jinbo who prepared the report for printing.

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February 1968

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

FOREWORD . . . ii

I. PROBLEMS AND DEFINITION . . . 3

- Introduction . . . 3
- Statement of the Problem . . . 4
- The Approach of the Study . . . 4
- Procedure of the Study . . . 4
- Limitations of the Study . . . 5
- Terms Defined . . . 5

II. IDENTIFYING CULTURAL DEPRIVATIONS . . . 6

- Criteria for Identification . . . 7
- Methods of Identifying Cultural Deprivation . . . 8
- Method of the Honolulu Council of Social Agencies . . . 8
- Method of the Department of Education . . . 9

III. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE . . . 13

- Introduction . . . 13
- Characteristics of the Educationally Deprived Child . . . 13
- Issues on Compensatory Education . . . 14
  - Busing . . . 14
  - Cultural Conflict or Deprivation . . . 17
  - Conflicting Demands on Schools . . . 18
  - Standardized Tests . . . 18
- Historical Perspective . . . 19
- Approaches to Compensatory Education . . . 20
  - Teacher Recruitment and Training . . . 21
  - Educational Innovations . . . 23
  - Preschool Programs . . . 26
  - Dropout Programs . . . 27
  - Administrative Modifications . . . 29
  - Summary of Promising Practices . . . 31
  - A Significant Program . . . 32
- Evaluative Comments . . . 34
- Promising Proposals . . . 36
  - Supplementary Centers and Magnet Schools . . . 36
  - Educational Complexes . . . 37
  - Educational Parks . . . 38
- Summary . . . 39

IV. COMPENSATORY EDUCATION PROGRAMS IN HAWAII . . . 41

- Act 125 (SLH 1961), Special Motivation Program . . . 41
- Vocational Education Act of 1963 (P.L. 88-210) . . . 42
- Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 (P.L. 88-452) . . . 43
- Act 4 (SLH 1965), Hawaiian Home Lands . . . 48
- Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 (P.L. 89-10) . . . 50
- Title I of the Demonstration Cities and Metropolitan Development Act of 1966 (P.L. 89-754) . . . 55
- Act 299 (SLH 1967), Progressive Neighborhoods Program . . . 58

V. ANALYSES, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS . . . 60

- Administration . . . 61
  - Analysis . . . 61
  - Conclusion . . . 63
  - Administrative Implications . . . 63
- Programs . . . 64
  - Analysis . . . 64
  - Conclusions . . . 67
  - Program Implications . . . 68
- Funding . . . 69
  - Analysis . . . 69
  - Conclusions . . . 70

Page

Implications 71
Other Pertinent Conclusions 72

Summary and Major Conclusions 73

FOOTNOTES 75

Appendices

A. Estimated Expenditures for Compensatory Education in the State of Hawaii, School Years 1965-68 81

B. Department of Education, Office of Instructional Programs, Title I, P.L. 89-10 83

C. Administrative Structure for Compensatory Education, State of Hawaii 91

D. House Resolution 184, Fourth Legislature, 1967, State of Hawaii 92

E. Copy of Letter to Mr. Ralph H. Kiyosaki, Superintendent of Education, dated December 20, 1967, from Patsy T. Mink, United States Representative 93

F. House Resolution 274, Fourth Legislature, 1967, State of Hawaii 97

Table

1. Ranking of CRP Areas by Socio-Economic Indicators 9

2. Federal Programs Title I, P.L. 89-10, Fiscal Year 1967-68 11

3. Allocation and Expenditures of Hawaiian Homes Projects, 1965-1968 51

4. Hawaiian Homes Commission Educational Projects for Fiscal Year 1967-68 52

5. Estimated Allocations and Expenditures for P.L. 89-10, Title I Projects 56

6. Estimated Number and Cost of Classroom Assistants Employed for Fiscal Years 1966-1968 57

Chapter I

PROBLEMS AND DEFINITION

Introduction

This study was conducted in compliance with the requirements of House Resolution No. 184, adopted during the Fourth Legislature of the State of Hawaii, General Session of 1967.

The resolution directed the Legislative Reference Bureau to "investigate the feasibility of providing busing services to students who reside in limited environment communities."[1]

The resolution further directed the Legislative Reference Bureau to submit the completed report prior to the 1969 Legislature with a transmittal of progress report to the 1968 Legislature.

Certain assumptions are inherent in the action of the legislature and are borne out in an analysis of the resolution and the testimony[2] submitted to the House Education Committee:

1. There is a positive correlation between poverty and low academic achievement.
2. Children from disadvantaged homes have intellectual capacities far greater than they are commonly believed to have but these capacities are not being developed.
3. The school can counteract the effects of cultural deprivation.
4. Schools located in areas where there is high concentration of low-income families are usually characterized by a whole range of problems such as academic retardation and failures, disciplinary problems, pupil mobility, parental disinterest or apathy, dropouts, high staff turnover and others.
5. Current programs utilized in these schools are not meeting the needs of the students.
6. Removing students from such schools and relocating them in academically and socially advantaged schools will result in better achievement.

The overriding concern as well as intent apparent in the resolution is to provide equal educational opportunity for pupils residing in "limited environment" communities.[3] The feeling is evident that the state's quest for equal educational opportunity clearly enunciated in the legislative session of 1965 is hampered by high concentrations of low-income families. Radically different measures must be taken to equalize opportunity if children in these areas are to develop to their fullest capacities - intellectual, social, emotional, and physical. Busing children from disadvantaged to advantaged schools was seen as one possible solution.

QUEST FOR COMPENSATORY EDUCATION

When busing is considered in the light of Hawaii's needs for compensatory strategies for the deprived, some serious reservations arise. A review of the busing projects in several metropolitan areas will be reported in a following section. Local educators were also consulted on the applicability and feasibility of busing as a solution for educational deficiencies. The following conclusions are noted:

1. The busing experience has not been conclusive, and the accumulating evidence of test results indicates that the educational accomplishments of children bused to "better" schools is not showing the expected improvement. The conclusion being reached by many communities is that busing is not the answer; too many other variables enter into the learning situation to permit the answer of a single panacea.[4]

2. Busing is essentially an integration measure, an effort to reduce racial isolation in big-city schools, and in the process of providing integrated experiences, to improve the educational achievement of children from racially segregated areas. Since racial segregation is not an issue in Hawaii, the arguments advanced for busing from this standpoint become peripheral rather than central.

3. Isolated rural area schools might be well served by busing, but there are problems of geographic distance, the availability of "advantaged" schools, and the problem of transporting school populations to another location. For many of the isolated schools, such as Hana and others, geographic distance is a formidable obstacle. The lack of a school with desirable social, intellectual, and motivational characteristics is an even greater obstacle. There are no such desirable schools within reasonable commuting distance. Consolidation of schools to improve offerings and physical facilities will not automatically result in the kind of motivational climate likely to influence children's achievement.

4. Busing students to advantaged schools will not in itself ensure the type of education appropriate to the deprived. Unless the specific nature of educational deficiencies are identified and school programs and curricular materials carefully designed to attack these problems, no real headway can be made. There will be treatment of symptoms rather than causes. For example, it is widely acknowledged that intensive work in language development is needed for deprived students. This kind of instruction is less likely to be had in the better schools where language development is not a problem.

PROBLEMS AND DEFINITION

The general conclusion reached as a result of the preliminary survey is that busing deals with only one dimension of education in depressed areas. A study of busing of the scope intended in House Resolution 184 could not be conducted intelligently or comprehensively except within a larger context of the state's entire compensatory education program. It was decided, therefore, to expand the study to include a review of the state's entire compensatory education effort for school age children, and furthermore to expand it in such a manner as to bring it within the purview of all those mandates emerging from the Fourth Legislature which directed the Department and related agencies to study the problem of education for the deprived.[5] An identification of the problem of educational deprivation, a review and analysis of the programs in operation, and a survey of the literature on the subject will constitute the first increment of steps to study the problem of compensatory education.

Statement of the Problem

The problem can be simply stated. There exists a substantial group of students who do not make normal academic progress. These are students whose background of experience, whose readiness for the traditional demands of school, and whose motivation for learning differ markedly from those of successful students. The range of individual differences among these students defy stereotyping, yet certain characteristics are more common among them than among those who are able to compete successfully in school. These students exhibit a greater degree of personal and social problems that deter school success; poor health, inadequate language competence, lack of social experiences assumed by the school, disinterest and discontinuity with the culture and values represented by the school.

As a group these students who underachieve have limited participation in extra-curricular programs, have lower educational aspirations, show less potential according to school standards, and have fewer opportunities for upward social mobility than their counterparts. A greater proportion of them also fail to complete secondary school. These students are variously referred to as "culturally deprived," "socially disadvantaged," "educationally deprived," "underprivileged," "alienated," "dropout," or "potential dropout," and the like.

These children come from socio-economic backgrounds characterized as "limited," which exhibit a higher-than-average degree of such factors as low income, home conflicts, large family size, poor educational motivation, substandard housing, high crime or delinquency rate, and geographic isolation.

These children, the communities they come from, and the schools which receive them are generally well known. Not substantiated are the peculiar nature and causes of their educational deficiencies, the quality of the curricular and extra-curricular efforts being mounted by the schools and communities to prevent or remedy their deficiencies, and the degree of success of these efforts.

In the several resolutions and committee reports related to compensatory education that emerged from the Fourth Legislature, the serious accusation that the schools have failed these children is implicit. The thrust of the requests is that the Department of Education "comprehensively reflect upon the nature of cultural deprivation and its many manifestations,"[6] and develop suitable curricula and pedagogy to facilitate their progress toward self-fulfillment and societal expectations.

A self-evident first step toward this end is an assessment of what presently exists in the name of compensatory education, evaluated in the light of its goals and the goals of education for the total school system.

Approach of the Study

The introductory chapter establishes the rationale for the enlargement of this study--from a study based solely on busing programs to a review of compensatory education programs.

Chapter two enumerates the method of identifying cultural deprivation by two different approaches. The factor of geographic location is described as a significant concern.

The third chapter reviews compensatory programs reported in the literature.

Current compensatory programs in Hawaii are reported in the fourth chapter.

The report is finalized in chapter five entitled, "Analyses, Conclusions, and Implications."

Procedure of the Study

This study was based on: (1) analysis and interpretation of various public documents and memoranda issued by the Department of Education and other governmental agencies regarding their compensatory programs; (2) interviews with staffs of schools, state and district offices of the Department, and other agencies; (3) observations of school programs; and (4) a comprehensive review of the professional and popular literature relevant to the subject of compensatory education.

PROBLEMS AND DEFINITION

Limitations of the Study

This study focuses on special educational programs for those whose educational deficiencies may be attributed to deprivations arising from social and economic causes. It does not include special education programs for the mentally retarded and the physically handicapped (the deaf, the blind, the crippled, the children with cardiac and other serious illnesses).

A second limitation of the study should be mentioned, because of accessibility, the sources of data on the compensatory programs examined are largely from the island of Oahu, and only limited references are made to programs operating on other islands of the State.

Terms Defined

1. Compensatory Education. For the purposes of this study compensatory education means "programs of special and extra services that are intended to compensate for a complex of social, economic, and educational handicaps suffered by disadvantaged children."[7]

2. Deprived youth will be used in this context as "those who have heavy liabilities which lessen their chances for competing successfully with their fellow citizens in all phases of life."[8] It also means those "children who have need for special educational assistance in order that their level of educational attainment may be raised to the appropriate level for children of their age. The term includes children whose needs for such special educational assistance result from poverty, neglect, delinquency, or cultural or linguistic isolation from the community at large."[9]

3. Limited Environment. Used synonymously with "deprived," "depressed," "disadvantaged," or "low socio-economic" environments, the term refers to those communities, urban or rural, characterized by a greater degree of such factors or combination of facts as the following: (1) low family income, (2) broken homes and absence of a steady breadwinner, (3) large family size, (4) minimal level of education, (5) substandard housing and urban or rural slum conditions, and (6) geographic isolation.

Chapter II

IDENTIFYING CULTURAL DEPRIVATIONS

In the last two decades a number of social, economic, and political currents have combined to emphasize the national concern of underdeveloped human resources represented in the segment of the population labeled "disadvantaged." Nowhere is this waste more apparent than in the United States, where the professed national ideal of equal opportunity and the world's highest level of affluence stand in stark contrast to the abject condition of the deprived.

The deepening sense of urgency for solutions to what had come to be recognized as a national crisis was reflected in government intervention on a scale unknown before. Among the landmark efforts testifying to the national concern were the 1954 Supreme Court decision on school desegregation, the Area Redevelopment Act of 1961, the Manpower Development Act of 1962, the Vocational Education Act of 1963, the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964, the Appalachia Regional Development Act of 1965, the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, the National Defense Education Act, and the Model Cities Act of 1966. Private foundations supported earlier attempts in improving education before federal legislation was enacted.[1]

Of particular national concern is the child from disadvantaged circumstances, his special problems and neglected potential, his need for viable approaches to learning that can help overcome the handicaps of his environment. Estimates of the numbers of these children in the public schools of the nation vary. In 1950 according to Riessman, approximately one child out of every ten in the fourteen largest cities of the United States fell in this category. By 1960 the ratio had increased to one in three. Even by the most optimistic projections, it is estimated that the ratio will increase to one in two by the year 1970.[2]

These children constitute the majority who do poorly in school, who fail to complete their schooling, or who become "psychological dropouts." In 1964 the Panel of Education Research and Development reported:

> In neighborhood after neighborhood across the country, more than half of each age group fails to complete high school, and 5 percent or fewer go on to some form of higher education. In many schools the average measured IQ is under 85, and it drops steadily as the children grow older. Adolescents depart from these schools ill-prepared to lead a satisfying, useful life or to participate successfully in the community.[3]

The mounting criticism of the schools, however, can be seen as but the other face of a firm and positive faith that education promises the greatest hope of salvation of this population. The schools are not regarded as responsible for curing the ills of society, but they are seen as responsible for carrying out their historic mission of enabling the young, independent of social origin, to acquire the knowledge and skills necessary for full participation in a democratic society.

In the light of this mission, the schools are being challenged to discover ways of attracting the disadvantaged to the skills, knowledge, attitudes, and aspirations that will enable them to shape their own future. This means a system of compensatory education programs that will confront and redress the inequities in potential, aptitude, and motivation which handicap this group.

This chapter will report on the prevailing approaches utilized to identify and select the population in question.

Criteria for Identification

The methods of identifying the culturally different children are specified in the federal program guidelines which includes the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, Economic Opportunity Act, Manpower Training and Development Act, and the Model Cities Act.

A review of the various statutes reveals that both quantitative and qualitative indices were used to identify characteristics of a deprived child. Crewson defines the indicators as follows:

Criteria which can be helpful in the identification of the educationally disadvantaged may be considered under two general headings: (1) quantitative and (2) qualitative. "Quantitative data would include such items as the results of mental ability tests, achievement test data, including scores in reading and other tool subjects and in state-wide tests, school--grade and age comparisons, pupil personnel services information and health status and handicaps. Qualitative data would include social and cultural factors, teacher observations and judgments, other staff and community agency evaluations, results of surveys such as that of parents' occupations, employment status, attitudes, education, and additional findings of research pertaining to cultural and educational disadvantagement."[4]

Most of the social characteristics of poverty are arranged into broad categories. The most common categories are: (1) Economic status--annual income; (2) Crime--police arrests; (3) School adjustment and education--academic attainment; (4) Health status--incidences of illness; (5) Housing conditions--crowding and dilapidation; and (6) Unemployment. The category dominantly used in the federal statutes was the economic status of the beneficiaries of the programs to be established.

Perhaps economic status was most frequently utilized because research findings seem to imply that there is a high correlation between low annual income and the other identified poverty characteristics (i.e. high incidences of juvenile arrests, abnormal amount of school maladjustments, etc.). Several studies that were conducted in Hawaii substantiate this claim.[5]

Methods of Identifying Cultural Deprivation

Although there are numerous practices used in Hawaii to identify the culturally deprived youth, this study will discuss two different approaches: (1) the Honolulu Council of Social Agencies' method of ranking communities for redevelopment considerations; and (2) the Department of Education's method for initiating P.L. 89-10 Title I projects.

Method of the Honolulu Council of Social Agencies

The most extensive study (1966) relating to social characteristics of communities for the purpose of ranking these communities to provide a reasonable priority order for community redevelopment considerations, was conducted by the Honolulu Council of Social Agencies.[6] Thirteen areas on Oahu, urban and rural, were designated as project areas: (1) Lower Palolo--census tract 12; (2) Kaimuki--census tracts 13 and 14; (3) McCully--census tracts 23, 24, 25, and 26; (4) Punchbowl--census tracts 43 and 50, portion of census tract 47 Diamond Head of Liliha Street; (5) Kapalama--portions of census tracts 47 and 49; portions of census tracts 55 and 56 mauka of Lunalilo Freeway; portion of census tract 48 excluding Kamehameha School; (6) Kalihi-Palama--census tracts 54, 57, 58, and 60; portions of census tracts 55, 56, 61, and 62 makai of Lunalilo Freeway; (7) Kalihi-Ft. Shafter--census tracts 63, 64, and 65; portions of census tracts 61 and 62 mauka of Lunalilo Freeway; (8) Waianae--census tracts 96, 97, and 98; (9) Waipahu--census tracts 87 and 88; (10) Wahiawa--census tracts 93 and 94; and the Whitmore Village portion of census tract 91; (11) Kailua--census tract 109; (12) Waialua-Haleiwa--urbanized portions of census tracts 99 and 100; and (13) Waimanalo--census tract 113.

The thirteen communities were ranked according to twenty indicators that were categorized as follows: (1) four indicators based on family income; (2) one based on unemployment; (3) one based on substandard housing; (4) two based on schooling; (5) two based on incidences of tuberculosis cases and illegitimate births; (6) six based on complaints and actual arrests; (7) four based on aid to dependent children, aid to disabled, aid to the aged, and the number of free lunches served to needy children.

The twenty indicators were then combined into the following broad groups: economic status, education and health, crime, juvenile arrests, welfare, and elementary schools. The communities were then "ranked in descending order for each of the twenty indicators, the least favorable area being assigned 1 and the most favorable being assigned 13."[7]

IDENTIFYING CULTURAL DEPRIVATIONS

The Honolulu Council of Social Agencies' ranking of areas is presented in Table 1. An analysis of Table 1 substantiates the previous assumption that there is a high correlation between economic status and other indicators of poverty. Kalihi-Palama community, which ranked second in economic status also consistently ranked high in education-health, crime, juvenile and welfare.

Table 1

RANKING OF CRP AREAS BY SOCIO-ECONOMIC INDICATORS

CRP AREA	Composite Rank	Composite Index*	Econ. Status	Educ.-Health	Crime	Juvenile	Welfare	Elem. Schls	Average Percentile
Kalihi-Palama	1	1.9	2	1	1	1	1	4	17.9
Waianae	2	3.2	1	4	2	9	3	1	21.3
Waimanalo	3	4.4	3	5	3	3	5	3	27.6
Kalihi-Ft. Shafter	4	4.6	6	2	7	1	4	2	28.7
Waialua-Haleiwa	5	5.4	5	6	6	6	2	13	38.4
Waipahu	6	6.4	7	3	9	7	8	7	39.3
Punchbowl	7	7.1	8	7	8	12	6	5	43.2
Wahiawa	8	7.4	3	12	10	13	7	10	46.5
Kapalama	9	8.2	10	8	11	10	9	8	45.8
McCully	10	8.5	9	10	4	11	11	12	49.9
Lower Palolo	11	8.6	13	9	12	4	12	6	52.5
Kailua	12	9.2	12	13	5	5	10	11	53.9
Kaimuki	13	9.8	11	10	13	8	12	9	56.1

Source: Honolulu Council of Social Agencies, A Study of the Social Characteristics of 13 Oahu Communities, p. 33.

*Based on all 20 indicators.

Method of the Department of Education

The Department of Education currently identifies schools that are located in limited environment communities by the criteria established in the document, "Title I, P. L. 89-10 Guidelines for Fiscal Year 1968." Briefly stated, the guidelines used the following procedure:

> The number of children from families with less than $2,000 annual income according to the 1960 census and the number of children from families receiving Welfare Aid in 1966 was determined for each school in the State of Hawaii. The public schools in the State were then ranked according to the percentage of children from low income families in proportion to the enrollment of the school. For the State of Hawaii the average concentration was 8.874 percent. Thus, schools with greater

than the 8.874 percent concentration could be eligible to participate in Title I projects. In order to concentrate greater effort on those schools with the highest incidence of poverty, Districts may eliminate attendance areas with the lower concentrations of children from low-income families from the bottom of the rank order listing of eligible schools.[8]

Geographical location. Using the number of children from families with less than $2,000 annual income (1960 Census) and the number of children receiving welfare aid, the Department of Education identified eighty-one (81) schools which qualified for P.L. 89-10 (Title I) funds.

Table 2 shows the number of schools by districts that participated in Title I (P.L. 89-10) funds: Honolulu District--thirteen (13) elementary schools, five (5) intermediate schools, and three (3) high schools; Central District--five (5) elementary schools, one (1) intermediate school, and two (2) high schools; Leeward District--four (4) elementary schools, two (2) intermediate schools, and one (1) high school; Windward District--six (6) elementary schools, two (2) intermediate schools, and two (2) high schools; Kauai District--five (5) elementary schools and one (1) high school; Maui District--nine (9) elementary schools, one (1) intermediate school and three (3) high schools; and Hawaii District--nine (9) elementary schools, three (3) intermediate schools, and four (4) high schools.

In Hawaii, cultural deprivation has a geographic dimension. Although poverty or cultural deprivation is not limited to a specific locale or island, the extent of deprivation is more pronounced in certain communities. For example, the problems or needs of the Kalihi-Palama Community, as certified by the redevelopment agency, are more extensive than the Kaimuki Community.[9] According to another abstract, based on economic status, Education-Health, Crime, Juvenile, Welfare, Elementary Schools, the Kalihi-Palama Community is plagued with more problems than Kaimuki (see Table 1).

Table 2

FEDERAL PROGRAMS TITLE I, P.L. 89-10
FISCAL YEAR 1967-68

Districts	Elementary	Intermediate	High School
Honolulu	13	5	3
Central	5	1	2
Leeward	4	2	1
Windward	6	2	2
Kauai	5		1
Maui	9	1	3
Hawaii	9	3	4
TOTAL	51	14	16

TOTAL SCHOOLS PARTICIPATING IN THE STATE: 81 Schools

Source: Department of Education, Office of Instructional Services.

In analyzing academic achievement by STEP reading scores, two implications can be made: (1) schools located in remote areas have lower mean scores than schools that are located in the urban communities, and (2) there is a positive relationship between a high concentration of public housing and poor academic attainment (see Appendix B). For example, the remote schools of Pope Elementary (reading mean score of 19%) and Nanaikapono School (STEP reading mean score of 22%) scored considerably lower than Kaewai Elementary (STEP reading mean score of 42%) and Fern Elementary (STEP reading mean score of 42%) or urban Honolulu.

In examining STEP reading scores of schools that are located in communities with a high concentration of public (low-income) housing, one finds that academic achievement is lower than that of schools that are not located in areas with a high concentration of public (low-income) housing. For example, Linapuni Elementary School, which is located near the Kuhio Park Terrace low-income housing project (STEP reading mean score of 27%) and Dole Intermediate School, 30% of the school patrons reside in public housing (STEP reading mean score of 39%) scored lower than schools like Royal (STEP reading mean score of 58%) and Washington Intermediate School (STEP reading mean score of 54%).

QUEST FOR COMPENSATORY EDUCATION

Poverty, as indicated by P.L. 89-10 (Title I) allocation (income - $2,000 level and welfare aid to children) seems more concentrated in the city of Honolulu. Appendix B shows that 3,516 students qualified in the Honolulu district for P.L. 89-10 projects compared to 2,412 students in the Leeward, Windward and Central school districts. The proportion of eligible children in the Honolulu school district (3,516 children) also exceeds the Hawaii, Maui, Leeward, Central and Windward school districts (3,357 children).

Chapter III

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

The significance of cultural deprivation is unquestioned as evidenced by the abundance of recent literature on the topic. The impetus provided by federal legislation, not only for purposes of funding programs but also for evaluative efforts, have resulted in numerous research endeavors which are currently being reported.

Chapter III is designed to provide selected reviews by the following sections: (1) characteristics of the educationally deprived child, (2) issues in compensatory education, (3) historical perspectives, (4) approaches to compensatory education, (5) evaluative comments, (6) brief promising proposals, and (7) a summary of this chapter.

Characteristics of the Educationally Deprived Child

Paul A. Witty cites the following statement from Robert Havighurst which gives three general characteristics of the deprived child as:

> . . . (a) family characteristics resulting from living in homes in which language facilities and general experiences are meager and limited, (b) personal characteristics which result in insecurity on the part of the child because of the realization of inadequacies in meeting school and other demands, (c) social characteristics which are associated with low income, rural background, or social and economic discrimination.[1]

A comprehensive summary of the characteristics of disadvantaged pupils is stated by Passow and Elliott and includes the traits noted by Gordon and Wilkerson.[2] This comprehensive summary of characteristics of the deprived as a group states:

> . . . the disadvantaged are a group characterized by: (a) language inadequacies, including limited vocabulary and syntactical structure, inability to handle abstract symbols and complex language forms to interpret and communicate, difficulties in developing and maintaining thought sequences verbally, restricted verbal comprehension, unfamiliarity with formal speech patterns, and greater reliance on non-verbal communication means; (b) perceptual deficiencies, problems of visual and auditory discrimination and spatial organization; (c) a mode of expression which is more motorial and concrete than conceptual and idea-symbol focused; (d) an orientation of life which seeks gratification in the here and now, rather than in delaying it for future advantage; (e) a low self-image, denigrating one's potential as person and learner;

(f) too modest aspirations and motivation to achieve academic goals; (g) apathy and detachment from formal educational goals and processes; and (h) limited role-behavior skills and inadequate or inappropriate adult models. As a group, they reveal inability and unreadiness to cope with the group demands and expectations of the school program and personnel; a cumulative academic retardation and progressively deteriorating achievement pattern; and a high incidence of early school withdrawal.[3]

Issues on Compensatory Education

There are many issues that remain to be resolved among the educators in the present national quest for equal educational opportunities. The conflicts arise from the confusion created by the lack of information on the nature and causes of educational deprivation and the lack of information about the most effective approach to compensatory education. In order to better understand the difficulties encountered in seeking the answers to "many of the pressing problems of the disadvantaged,"[4] it is imperative that there is some understanding of these issues. Therefore, the four issues most frequently mentioned in the literature--busing, cultural conflict versus deprivation, conflicting demands, and the use of standardized tests--are briefly discussed:

Busing

For the purpose of this section, the term, busing, will be limited to the definition in the current literature which is the practice of transporting disadvantaged students, usually Negro, from schools in the metropolitan poverty stricken areas across suburban boundaries to schools in affluent neighborhoods.[5] The general practice of transporting pupils to and from school by either public or private means which is another definition of this term, busing, will not be applied here.

Busing programs were originally initiated as temporary measures to relieve overcrowded schools until more facilities could be built. It has also been used as a pretext to perpetuate racial segregation in such systems as those in Cincinnati and Milwaukee.[6]

The availability of federal funds for educational purposes has spurred the planning of pilot projects to desegregate schools troubled by racial and social isolation.[7] Most of these projects have been "one way" movements; that is, the deprived children, predominantly Negro, have been transported from schools in the poverty areas to those in the wealthier suburbs. There has been one case of "reverse busing" in New York which has received wide attention.[8] In this instance, a small group of children from white middle-class families was transported to a school with a nearly all Negro student body.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

An example of a busing project is the West Hartford Busing Experiment in which 190 children, a majority of whom were Negroes, were transported from Hartford's blighted areas to attend West Hartford's six-week summer session. The students in grades two through twelve were accommodated on a "first come, first accepted" policy. No special curriculum was devised for the bused students. A federal grant of $55,000 was received by the school district to provide for the scholarship and transportation costs of the Hartford children. (This amounted approximately to $290 per bused child for the six-week session.) The vocabulary and reading subtests of the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills were administered both before and after the program to a group of bused children who were enrolled in the summer school, the experimental group, and to a group of Hartford children who had registered but did not attend the session, the control group. The results of the tests indicated that those in the experimental group showed some learning gains (about 3.1 months) in reading comprehension over the children in the control group but the results were not significant.[9]

In the studies conducted on several busing projects, information on the cost per pupil transported has been notable for its scarcity. Most of these reports evaluated the feelings of the participants--parents, students and teachers involved in the projects--and the general school achievements of the students.[10] An inference can be made about the cost of transportation in these projects from the U. S. Civil Rights Commission's discussion on the proposals for educational parks when it stated the following: "the cost of transportation obviously is a factor in the feasibility of . . . parks."[11]

The school officials of White Plains stated that $69,500 was spent in one year for busing pupils.[12] This amount was used mostly to transport the 520 pupils from a predominantly Negro school that was closed to other schools in that city. This was part of the project to bring about racially balanced enrollment in the schools of that district. From this, another inference can be drawn that districts which have initiated these programs spend more than the national average of $46 per pupil for transporting children to school by public means.[13]

It has been possible for cities with small populations such as White Plains, New York (population 50,000) to involve the entire school district in the busing program. But in other districts, especially those encompassing large metropolitan areas as New York and Chicago, it has been possible to apply this program to only token numbers of disadvantaged pupils. An illustration of this token involvement is the following list of school systems that have initiated busing projects and the number of children participating in each: Syracuse - 24; Berkeley - 230; Seattle - 242; Rochester - 25 for the first year, gradually building up to a total of 300 in subsequent years; Hartford - 267; and Boston - 520.[14] In all the systems cited above, there were, as the U. S. Civil Rights Commission admits, only a small number of pupils involved in these metropolitan busing programs. This method has been hailed as the main remedy for the children of the ghettos by the same Commission[15] when it stated that busing shows promise and has potential for affecting greater numbers of students and schools when plans for extending them beyond the metropolitan areas are realized.[16]

This latter point raises another problem which a newspaper columnist elaborated on.[17] He stated that a constitutional amendment would be needed to enforce the busing of deprived students (predominantly Negro) from the metropolitan school districts such as Washington to schools in outlying suburbs such as those in Maryland and Virginia. This problem would not affect Hawaii but another one, the problem of the amount of time the children would spend each day on the bus traveling to and from school, would have pertinence in this State if a project like this is initiated.

There appears to be much controversy involved in the busing projects on the matter of school achievement by the students. In the three programs that the U. S. Civil Rights Commission studied, where there were both busing and compensatory programs in the same districts, it was reported that the children who were bused to integrated schools progressed at a more rapid rate than those remaining in the "ghetto" schools with compensatory programs.[18] A report from White Plains stated that the disadvantaged Negro children who were bused to integrated schools were achieving at a substantially much better rate than those who had attended segregated schools.[19] This report was challenged by a citizen's group from that same city which, after using the same statistics supplied by the school district, concluded "that Negro children actually performed at a significantly lower level of achievement after they had participated in the racial balance plan."[20] The Kansas City, Kansas, school district reported that its busing program disclosed no significant gains for those participating in it.[21] A report in a similar vein was that by the Stanford Research Institute which studied the compensatory education program of San Francisco for a year-and-a-half. This report stated that the busing program had little effect on the achievement of the pupils participating in it.[22]

There are two important assumptions to be made from the review of the studies of the busing projects. One is that these busing programs are expensive and that these projects have been carried on only because the federal funds were available. The other is that these projects did not have any significant effect on the learning rate of the deprived children who were bused.

A pair of questions must then be considered before this type of project is initiated in this State. Should a large sum be expended to bus children in projects in which results at best will not show any significant changes in the learning rate of the disadvantaged pupils? Or should this money instead be expended on projects in which the quality of education is improved and which will involve busing as one of the means toward attaining this goal rather than considering busing as the sole means of providing for the educationally deficient as suggested by the busing adherents. Proposals that embody this latter thought will be reviewed in the later sections of this chapter. As a further substantiation of this thought is the conclusion reached by a group of educationalists who, after studying compensatory education and busing projects, stated the following:

> Instead, new school construction must take the form of large complexes, such as campus parks, which draw upon wide attendance areas, guarantee quality education, and maximize desegregation.[23]

Cultural Conflict or Deprivation

There is no unanimity, among persons concerned with the problem of providing for the educational needs of children, that poor scholastic achievement exhibited by students is due primarily to deprivation. Two persons who have studied the Mexican-Americans claim that children from this group do not succeed in the average school situation because of an apparent cultural conflict with that of the dominant "English-speaking, Anglo-urban school population."[24] Tenenbaum states that the lower-class children become problems in the schools because of the apparent differences in the cultures between that of the dominant American middle class and that of the lower class.[25] Some sociologists and other persons interested in human rehabilitation who have made studies on and, in a few cases, who are themselves members of such minority groups as the American Indians, Puerto Ricans, and the American Negroes state that the difficulties encountered by these minority groups are due to the differences in the cultures--between that of the majority middle class and of each of the respective minority groups.[26] There is an implication, as Montez points cut, that language and cultural differences have contributed to the situation and these groups have been degraded by being labeled as disadvantaged. He adds that "A monolithic society such as that of the United States has real difficulty in conceiving of people who are bilingual and bicultural."[27]

Sociological studies of the Japanese-Americans and Chinese-Americans conclude that, although minority groups may have cultures that are quite different from that of the dominant American one, where cultural values are similar with that of the American majority, there is less cultural conflict.[28] The children of these minority groups seem to achieve as much as the average American middle-class child in the school situation.

Some educationalists question the practice of imposing middle-class values on all minority groups.[29] Another suggests that the school program be reorganized to be more in line with the cultural values of the minority groups.[30] The Connecticut State Board of

Education rebuts these arguments with the following:

> . . . Yet some writers, in objecting to the term "culturally disadvantaged," go on to affirm the relative merits of the deprived sub-culture. After all, they say, its members have standards valid for themselves and have developed complex skills for coping with their environment. They ask, "What justification do middle-class observers have in expecting everyone to adopt their outlook and behavior patterns?" This point of view does appeal to tolerance and rightfully calls to task a more-righteous-than-thou attitude.
>
> However, the question--who is to say whose culture is better?--obscures two critical considerations. First, in general our society, rightly or wrongly, rewards middle-class behavior and achievement. Consequently, the disadvantaged child, without considerable stimulation, is more likely than not destined to a life of low status and economic hardship. As a second consequence, the nation may be deprived of latent abilities and human resources which are not given an opportunity to develop. These are the harsh facts and to gloss over them is to do no one a service. In a very real sense, the educational acts referred to are dedicated not to ameliorating present existence but rather to creating a new existence.[31]

Conflicting Demands on Schools

Gordon and Wilkerson state that there are two demands being made on the schools today. One is a demand for the development of academic excellence for a large group of pupils and the other is a demand for academic competence in all pupils. They add that the "civil rights focus on racial integration in education and equality of educational achievement is part of this dual demand."[32]

Standardized Tests

There has been controversy in educational circles regarding the use of standardized tests to identify and measure the academic progress of the educationally deprived children. As part of the section on evaluating the present practices in compensatory education, a few of the opinions expressed on this subject are reviewed and the uses of these tests are also noted.

Many educationalists have been critical about the use of the standardized group intelligence tests on the disadvantaged pupils. Two of them state that these tests reflect the middle-class values and hence are not suited for the disadvantaged.[33] Another cites the following:

> It is important that classroom teachers be reminded constantly of two facts regarding standardized tests: (a) they are based on the assumption that all children have the same cultural background, and (b) no test is any better than the person who interprets it. Both of these limiting factors negate much of the value of standardized tests as they have been used with the educationally retarded and disadvantaged.[34]

Melvin Tumin in commenting on the norms established for the standardized tests questions this method of establishing educational guidelines in which half the participants must fail automatically and that "nothing substantive and theoretically justifiable" about what the schools ought to be accomplishing is stated.[35]

In contrast to the above thoughts, Brazziel and Terrell conducted an experiment with a group of first-grade pupils in which the Metropolitan Readiness Test and the Detroit Intelligence Test were used.[36] Standardized reading tests were administered to evaluate the reading achievement of the pupils participating in the compensatory programs in Philadelphia and New York.[37]

Walter Barbe states that certain measuring instruments have some value in helping the teacher to determine the ability level of certain types of children. He indicated that the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test was useful in testing mentally retarded children.[38] Glenn Nimnicht used this test with a group of Spanish-American preschool children[39] and Leon Eisenberg used it in evaluating the achievement of the children in Project Head Start. Eisenberg also used the Goodenough-Harris Drawing Test in the same project. He chose these two as "instruments sensitive to the deficits in the culturally disadvantaged child rather than as accurate measures of his overall cognitive function."[40]

Historical Perspective

A writer on educational subjects states that the educational leaders in the big cities had recognized this challenge to meet the needs of all pupils and the 1954 U. S. Supreme Court decision on school desegregation was a catalyst in maximizing their efforts to solve this problem. The Great Cities School Improvement Program was initiated in sixteen of the larger cities in 1957 with funds provided principally by the Ford Foundation. Milwaukee, St. Louis, Pittsburgh, San Francisco, Washington, Cleveland, Philadelphia, Chicago and Detroit were among the cities that participated in this program. New York City was not included because it had already started on its Higher Horizons Program, an outgrowth of its successful Demonstration Guidance Project.[41]

Prior to this, New York City had initiated several pilot projects to deal with the problems of educating the disadvantaged. One of the early ones was the Harlem Project that was started in the mid-forties. Others were the Early Identification Program started in 1959, All-Day Neighborhood Schools initiated in 1936 and the Non-English Program begun in 1953 to provide for the Spanish-speaking pupils. Many of these are still in operation.[42]

Federal funds for the development of educational excellence for the students became available with the passage of the National Defense Education Act of 1958. This was followed by federal funds for the various antipoverty programs included in the Area Redevelopment Act of 1962, the Vocational Education Act of 1963 and the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964. Most of these laws were enacted to aid the school districts to provide for the disadvantaged pupils.[43] The Project Head Start of 1965, a program on a large scale to provide an eight-week summer program for the preschool children of deprived families, was made possible by the passage of the Economic Opportunity Act.[44] The federal government became firmly committed to providing aid for the disadvantaged students with the enactment of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act in 1965.

The increasing availability of funds from both the federal government and the private foundations (especially the Ford Foundation) spurred the school systems to initiate a great variety of special education programs for disadvantaged children and youths. Marjorie Smiley states that the term "compensatory education" was introduced in the mid-1960's to describe the special programs which were "to compensate for those environmental deficits in society and in the school which retard and limit the educational progress of the children of the poor."[45]

There have been many general compensatory education programs initiated of which a few have become widely known. Among these are the Great Cities School Improvement Program, Higher Horizons Program and All-Day Neighborhood School Program of New York City, Madison Area Project of Syracuse, compensatory programs initiated under the McAteer Act of California, Banneker District Program of St. Louis, More Effective Schools Program of New York City and the Educational Improvement Program of Philadelphia.[46]

Approaches to Compensatory Education

There seems to be three primary approaches that have been taken by the school districts to meet the demand for improved educational services for the deprived. They are teacher recruitment and training, educational innovations and administrative modifications. General compensatory education programs use one or more of these approaches.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Teacher Recruitment and Training

Gordon and Wilkerson stated the rationale for the first approach, teacher recruitment and training, as follows:

> . . . Numbers alone are not enough, and an inspired and competent staff has usually proved to be the sine qua non of any successful program for the disadvantaged. No attempt at reaching and teaching disadvantaged children can hope to be successful unless the attitude of the teaching staff and the administration is both optimistic and enlightened, and unless new approaches are not only accepted but welcomed.[47]

The experimental teacher training projects at Hunter College in New York City, Yeshiva University (Project Beacon), the University of Missouri (Junior Practicum), and the Bank Street College of Education are among those that are better known.[48]

In the experimental teacher training program at Hunter College, volunteers are recruited from among the teacher trainees of that institution. These volunteers are assigned to the "difficult" junior high schools in the deprived areas of New York City as student teachers for one semester. The student teaching semester is divided into three parts. The first part is for orientation and adjustment to the environment. The second part consists of gradual induction into the actual teaching situation. The third part consists of the student teacher assuming control and responsibility for two classes in the morning period.[49]

Vernon Haubrich in his report on this project at Hunter College made these observations:

> 1. Professional preparation of prospective teachers is closely linked to their placement in a school where they know a teaching position exists at the end of their student teaching experience.
>
> 2. If each school, no matter what its station, represents unique endeavors on the part of teachers and learners in that school and community, then the entire concept of teacher preparation in general may be open to question. Schools may have many things in common but environmental, family and peer relationships constitute a unique rather than a universal situation for teaching.
>
> 3. The program in a difficult school has indicated that far more time and cooperation must be had for an effective experience in student teaching.[50]

In-Service Teacher Training. Another aspect of this first approach is in-service teacher training. Muriel Crosby in describing the Three-Year Experimental Project on Schools in Changing Neighborhoods initiated in Wilmington, Delaware stated the objectives of the in-service education of the staff as:

> (a) . . . effecting a change of attitudes from one of rejection or tolerance to one of acceptance, support, and identification with disadvantaged children;
>
> (b) . . . learning new approaches and techniques in diagnosing the human relations needs of children; and
>
> (c) . . . acquiring skill in building curriculum experience units based on children's perceptions of their needs.[51]

Loretan and Umans suggest that teachers should be helped to "become so knowledgeable in curriculum content and in helping children learn how to learn that they can look at children as Binet did, as 'fields for cultivation'." They feel that this is a better approach than providing "special education" for the teachers of the disadvantaged.[52]

Gordon and Wilkerson state that, "much of the in-service teacher training in compensatory programs puts emphasis on increasing teacher sensitivity to the hopes and anxieties, the particular strengths and weaknesses lying behind the classroom behavior of the disadvantaged." They describe several of these in-service training programs. The Mobilization for Youth (MFY) in New York City conducts the Lower East Side Community Course which includes lecture workshops and field trips together with stipend and in-service credits for teachers attending it. Summer workshops or the television were used in the in-service programs conducted in Oakland, Stockton, and Redwood City in California. The in-service training programs in White Plains (New York), Detroit, and Washington, D. C. included courses to help teachers to acquire the specific skills, the techniques and the coping strategies for teaching pupils who cannot benefit from the traditional curriculum through faculty meetings, conferences, weekly information sheets, and paid attendance at Saturday and summer workshops. New Haven, Philadelphia and Chicago provided time for in-service training within the school day. All these training programs "have a common goal: to upgrade the quality of instruction in schools serving the disadvantaged."[53]

The same writers point out that only the improvement in the "teaching situation" will have the most effect on teacher effectiveness and morale despite the improvement in teacher attitudes and techniques. Factors that affect the "teacher situation" are such matters as class size, availability of help when needed, the structure with which the teacher works, and the materials that have to be taught.[54]

As an added significance of the importance of the teacher in the educational program, Fred Hechinger in his discussion of the Soviet educational system states the following as a factor in creating a favorable impression:

> But the lion's share of the credit for the successful classroom atmosphere belongs to the teachers. Whatever natural devotion they bring to the job, the system generates steady pressure for diligent performance.[55]

Educational Innovations

The second of the approaches used in the compensatory programs for the disadvantaged is in the area of educational innovations. One of the innovations under this approach is in the development of the communicative skills of the pupils. Crosby points out that the "greatest block to achievement of the disadvantaged child in school is his inability to understand and use the language of the school--informal standard English. Urban social dialects of disadvantaged families are seldom understood and appreciated by the school."[56] Mackintosh and Lewis, reporting on the preschool programs for the deprived in several large cities of the nation, state that the "programs generally feature language development, at first through listening, imitating and speaking."[57] Thus,

> . . . much of the emphasis in curricular change has focused on the language arts. No area of the curriculum has received as much attention in compensatory programs as reading and language development . . . Remedial reading ranks with guidance as the most widely used single approach to compensatory education.[58]

Among the methods used to encourage language development, the following are some of the most widely used: storytelling, dramatics, singing, use of audio equipment to hear correct speech as well as making own recordings, poetry reading and role playing. For pupils who come from families that use languages other than English, special programs have been set up in the school systems of Chicago, New York City, Texas, Philadelphia, Oxnard (California) and Merced (California).[59]

The Initial Teaching Alphabet is one of the new methods used in the teaching of reading. The improvement of the teaching of reading by bettering the skills of teachers has also received much emphasis in many of the compensatory programs.[60] The widespread utilization of the special reading personnel "to demonstrate or conduct classes for regular teachers, and to function as resource people providing sources of information on new materials and new reading techniques" is another aspect of this emphasis on reading instruction improvement.[61]

Altering the traditional self-contained classroom of one-teacher, one-class relationship has been another of the innovations. One of the most popular methods is team teaching. The rationale for this method is that by combining teachers with varying degrees of experience for planning and instructional activities, the less able will benefit from the advice and guidance of the more able teacher and a larger group of students will be able to share the knowledge of the teachers with special competence. These teaching teams may be organized on the basis of grade level or subject matter and they may be supplemented with personnel other than teachers such as teacher aides and volunteer room mothers. Among the programs using the team organization are the More Effective Schools of New York City, Pittsburgh, Safford Exploratory Program of Tucson, Project Able of Albany and a demonstration project in New Rochelle.[62]

The More Effective Schools Program of New York City is an example of a program which uses team teaching. Teams of four teachers are assigned to every three classes in each of the 21 elementary schools taking part in the program. Grades range from pre-kindergarten through the sixth grade. There are, besides the regular teachers, the following specialized teachers and personnel assigned to the schools: art, music, science, corrective reading and library teachers; audiovisual coordinators, guidance counselors, psychologists, social workers,community relations experts, auxiliary teachers, speech teacher and English language resource person. The children are grouped heterogeneously with flexible subgroupings by ability. The curriculum is enriched with special art, music and science classes. There is extensive testing to evaluate the individual needs of the children, and additional services such as tutoring, remedial work and guidance are available for the students. The teachers have a daily preparation period and there is a "built-in" teacher training program making up part of this project. In addition, there are extensive community relations activities carried on.[63]

The nongraded form of organization is another of the innovations used in a number of projects serving the disadvantaged students. The purpose of this method is to avoid having the failing pupil undergo a potentially harmful emotional experience by having that child move through the various academic areas at a speed he is capable of. Norfolk (Virginia), Baltimore, Pittsburgh and Chicago have organized nongraded classes in the primary grades. Systems such as Milwaukee, Denver, Austin, Detroit and Centinella Valley (California) have extended this concept to other grade levels.[64]

Barbe and Frierson listed the following systems as having enrichment programs in remedial reading and other academic areas: Los Angeles, Topeka (Kansas), Phoenix (Arizona), Oakland (California), Trenton (New Jersey) and Columbus (Ohio). They pointed out that the goal of these enrichment projects "is not merely to group disadvantaged children and present the curriculum to them in slower fashion or in less depth but, actually, to modify the materials and manner in which the presentation is made in such a way that children with limited backgrounds will become sensitive to the need for learning and will grow receptive to the methods being used."[65]

Gordon and Wilkerson indicated that the Project Able Program in Hillburn (New York) was an example of the many compensatory programs that emphasize active physical participation of the children. This, they stated, took advantage of the tendency noted among many children, especially those who were disadvantaged "to do rather than to be told." They added that this emphasis required multilevel learning materials that were within the scope of the present abilities of the children with the objective of raising the academic achievement of all the children.[66]

Most of the programs for the educationally disadvantaged are staffed largely with trained teachers.[67] The Banneker Project of St. Louis was one of those that did not use other types of personnel.[68] But others such as those in Flint (Michigan), Indianapolis, Kent (Ohio), Atlanta, Bloomington, University City (Missouri), Patterson (New Jersey), Hartsdale (New York), Omaha, San Diego, Rahway (New Jersey), Columbus and Syracuse use one or more of the different categories of personnel such as psychologists, remedial teachers, teacher aides, social workers, counselors, librarians and volunteer workers.[69]

Gordon and Wilkerson stated that some form of guidance activity together with reading improvement programs was the "almost universal component in projects for the disadvantaged." The use of guidance personnel in the traditional approach--that of dealing with the misfit--has been altered in many programs to that of early detection of and providing assistance to the misfits. St. Louis, Seattle and Boston have guidance programs at the elementary school level and are examples of this new emphasis. There has also been a revival of the concept of providing systematic guidance for all students in the project rather than to only those who have been referred by troubled teachers and administrators. The guidance programs have varied in providing group and individual counseling sessions, or both, as a means of making contact with the pupil, helping him to set personal goals and helping him to find ways to overcome the problems that interfere with his attaining his goals. Among the better known guidance oriented programs are the Higher Horizons Program of New York City and the Jacox Plan of Norfolk (Virginia).[70]

The special types of guidance programs aimed at helping the most promising among the underachievers are those such as the Project Opportunity of Atlanta, Project Mercury of Rochester and the other Talent Search Programs of New York.[71] The Upward Bound Programs begun on a national scale in June 1966 have a similar purpose of encouraging disadvantaged students with academic potential to pursue post-high school education.[72] These programs use various combinations of parent and pupil counseling, remedial work and cultural enrichment to have the pupils become aware of the "positive rewards of successful school achievement as a way of motivating them to greater effort."[73]

The compensatory education programs in New Haven (Connecticut), Moline (Illinois), and Cincinnati have included cultural enrichment as part of their curriculum. Enrichment activities involve such things as field trips and "expansion of offerings in art, music, and drama."[74]

Frederick Shaw stated that a Detroit project attempted "to involve parents in school activities in order to raise their educational and social aspirations for their children and give parents a better understanding of the educational process."[75] One of the founders of Project Head Start stated that the program placed a heavy emphasis on the involvement of parents in decision-making and direct interaction with the children both at the center and at the home "to provide the kinds of stimulation which families ordinarily give children but which can fail to develop in the chaotic conditions of life in poverty."[76] A disconcerting observation made was that the PTA "has not proved an effective instrument for involving a substantial number of disadvantaged parents."[77]

For the initial contact with the parents, Los Angeles and Houston had teachers or special school-community workers make home visits. Once this contact is established, liaison is maintained between the home and the school by certified teachers in Cleveland's home visit program. In Akron, Indianapolis and Philadelphia, school-community coordinators, social workers and school staff members maintain the contact. Parent meetings, parent-teacher conferences, parent newsletters, family outings as part of school field trips, and children sharing school activities with their parents have been used in the programs to develop the school-home relationship. Philadelphia has a program which encourages parents to enroll in adult education courses designed not only to make them become more helpful parents but also to become more productive adults.[78]

Preschool Programs

Besides the emphasis on changes to the regular school program, a new emphasis has been in providing for the needs of the preschool child. The basis for the current preschool education programs rely on the theories of early intervention presented by Martin Deutsch and Jerome Brunner. From the experimental evidence and observation, it is suggested that the early years of life are critical to all children but particularly crucial to those of deprived families. Brunner lists the factors that limit the development of the disadvantaged child as crowding, subsistence existence, little opportunity to learn through feedback and family problems. These affect the child by interfering with his development; he fails to develop adequate ability in auditory discrimination, becomes retarded in his ability to communicate and is discouraged from developing self-concern and individualism.[79] Further experiments and experience have suggested that planned educational experiences for the three- and four-year olds from disadvantaged backgrounds can get them ready for school. The Early Training Program at Murfreesboro (Tennessee) and the Institute for Developmental Studies in New York are still carrying on experiments to determine the length of these pre-kindergarten programs to develop maximum effectiveness. Besides the preschool program of Project Head Start, others such as those in Detroit, Oakland, Ypsilanti, Chicago and Pittsburgh have expanded the area of emphasis to include parent education and coordination with the regular school program.[80] As Brunner states, "The preschool enrichment is a beginning, not an end . . . . Continued attention to their [deprived pupils'] needs throughout their total school experience is of vital importance if they are to realize their full potential for learning."[81]

On the basis of early evidence, Gordon and Wilkerson concluded that gains from preschool educational experience seem "to wash out in the absence of subsequent school experiences that build upon the head start."[82] Sargent Shriver, Director of the Office of Economic Opportunity, and Harold Howe II, U. S. Commissioner of Education, "have concluded that the positive effects of preschool education are lost when the children begin the elementary grades" after they had assessed the initial success of the preschool programs. To counter this, they have suggested new programs in the regular schools to reduce the pupil-teacher ratio by more than half.[83]

Dropout Programs

There has also been an emphasis on providing for the students at the other end of the school program, those in the secondary schools who are leaving school before completing their academic requirements. Gordon and Wilkerson state that, "In one sense, all compensatory programs, because their aim is to provide a successful school life for their participants, have dropout prevention as their goal, and for all of them the motto might well be, 'The earlier the better'."[84] Schreiber points out the need for solving the school dropout problem by stating that "there is increasingly little place in our society for the dropout and that the dropout increasingly has no future." He states that the schools must alleviate the early conditions linked with the development of attitudes and behavior that tend to promote the child in dropping out of school at a later period.[85] Miller lists four types of low-income dropouts:

(a) school-inadequate	- Those who may have difficulty in completing school because of low intellectual functioning or disturbing emotional functioning.
(b) school-rejecting	- Those who find school to be confining, unuseful and ego-destructive. Many of these are pushed out of school.

(c) school-perplexed	- Those who become lost or reactive against the school because their cultural values inhibit educational achievement.
(d) school-irrelevant	- Those who do not expect to graduate because they have a job level in mind which does not require much education.[86]

Miller also raises a concern about the effectiveness of getting the youth to stay in school without a change in the entire society and economy.[87] Gordon and Wilkerson indicate that the lateness of the dropout programs makes them more prone to failure than to success and they add that unless substantial modifications can be made in the curriculum material, content, and methods and significant innovations are made in the job market, the problems of the potential school dropouts and exdropouts will not be solved.[88]

An interesting note on this theme is made by Edwin Dale. He contends that it is not because of special programs but rather because of the general prosperity that the vast majority of the high school dropouts now get jobs.[89]

Dropout programs now in effect are designed to permit those in the dropout ages, 16-21, to stay in school full or part time while getting paid for useful community work. This is the intent of the Neighborhood Youth Corps projects throughout the nation and the special projects such as the Work-Study Program of New Haven, STEP project of New York State and the Youth Conservation Corps of Philadelphia. Other programs such as those in South Norwalk (Connecticut) and Columbus provide special classes for potential dropouts among seventh, eighth and ninth grade students.[90]

Miscellaneous Educational Innovations. Educational innovations being tried also include changes in the hours spent in school by the pupils. Some educators have felt that "the school must eventually provide a seven-day-a-week, 365-day-a-year program for its disadvantaged pupils and their parents in order to compensate for the limited opportunities in their homes and neighborhoods for the stimulation and encouragement of academic development."[91]

Complementing this feeling is that of many observers who agree that a longer school day, permitting the school to take over more of the functions of the home, is a basic ingredient in salvaging slum children. An example of this type, they point out, is the All-Day Neighborhood Schools of New York City.[92] Other indications of this trend are the many programs which have been initiated to include after-school and weekend activities. Most of these take the form of study, tutoring and counseling centers. Cultural events, hobby classes, sports events, special interest clubs and other recreational-educational events are scheduled. Most of these centers and activities are operated with the help of volunteers but paid teachers are employed in the remedial programs in the before- and after-school centers operated in Milwaukee, New York and Los Angeles. Planned summer programs, as extensions of the regular school programs, have also been initiated. Variations of this theme have taken the form of free summer schools, provided in Chicago and New Haven, and summer day camps and sleep away camps provided in the Boston ABCD Program.[93]

In New Haven, the school is viewed not only as an educational center but also as a neighborhood community center. The belief is that the school and the community can help each other. The school is also viewed as an instrument to organize and focus the efforts of the existing community agencies on behalf of the neighborhood population. Detroit, New Haven and Philadelphia have either lay persons or professionals appointed as school-community coordinators to accomplish this aim. San Francisco has a volunteer tutoring program and a volunteer school aides program to supplement the regular school staff.[94] Clyde Campbell assumes that "the whole structure of the community should be organized to teach the retarded and the disadvantaged in a planned, purposeful manner through the many and varied operations in different community situations." He adds that from his experience in Flint and the reports from the other cities that the following is the approach used with success in the programs for the disadvantaged:

> . . . (a) representatives from the school first visit the homes before notices are sent inviting the people to visit the school; (b) parents are brought to the school for a specific purpose--not for a typical PTA meeting with an open-house kind of purpose; (c) parents participate in upgrading activities at the same time that their children are taught in the classroom (provided, of course, that the staff can prevent them from being mere observers); (d) people are encouraged to improve the neighborhood in which they live, not to place the entire responsibility for community betterment on city government; and (e) parents are requested to help teachers and administrators further improve the school program and not to assume that all or even the most important instruction takes place in classrooms.[95]

Administrative Modifications

Administrative modifications form the third approach in providing for the educational needs of the disadvantaged children. These modifications, which include busing, pairing of schools, open enrollment and its modification, free choice transfer plan, enlarging attendance areas and closing of schools, attendance area boundary changes, establishment of central schools, and site selections are all means of mixing children from the different racial groups and social classes to aid those from deprived backgrounds. All of these modifications have been linked to the objective of desegregating schools that have been troubled by racial and social class isolation.[96]

The rationale for this approach is stated by the Civil Rights Commission: Compensatory education programs cannot succeed unless the self-esteem of the disadvantaged student can be enhanced. It adds that there is a close relationship between the achievement of the student and his aspiration, motivation and self-esteem. As long as the student remains in a school that is located in a deprived area and that school is considered by the community to be an inferior institution, the student's self-esteem and hence his school achievement will not rise.[97] The Coleman report[98] and examples from the Commission's report indicate that when deprived children are placed in schools in which they form a minority, they have shown a higher rate of progress than those who had remained in schools where disadvantaged students constitute a majority of student body.[99]

Busing is the most familiar practice in this approach. The controversy surrounding this practice has been discussed earlier in this chapter.

An administrative modification initiated especially in small districts with small numbers of disadvantaged pupils is the pairing of schools. In this method the attendance areas of two or more schools serving the same grades are merged. Children in particular grades are assigned to one of the schools and those in the remaining grades are assigned to the second school. School districts using this method are Princeton, New Jersey; Greenburgh, New York; and Coatesville, Pennsylvania.[100]

Another modification tried in small communities is the establishment of central schools. This is similar to the pairing of schools in a small district where one school becomes the central facility for several grades serving the entire district. School systems using this method are those in Englewood, New Jersey and Teaneck, New Jersey.[101]

A fourth type of modification usually initiated in small cities and communities is the closing of schools and the enlarging of the attendance areas. The pupils from the closed schools were sent to the remaining schools. This was tried in White Plains (New York) and Syracuse (New York). These two cities used this method in conjunction with busing projects.[102]

The open enrollment plan with its corollary, free choice transfer plan,[103] make up the fifth kind of modification. This method has been tried in large metropolitan areas such as New York, Rochester and Baltimore. These plans permit the students to attend an underutilized school outside the attendance district in which their homes are located. The purpose of both is to give the pupils a choice of schools or to relieve racial imbalance, or both. In practice these two plans had very little effect because of the transportation costs that the parents had to bear and the limited space available in the sought after schools.[104]

Another type of administrative modification was the use of site selection and changes in the boundaries of the attendance areas to achieve a better ratio of social composition in the schools. These two plans have been used independently or together for this purpose in Rochester, Berkeley and New York. Because of the rapidly changing composition of the racial and social class elements within the large metropolitan areas these plans have not been very successful.[105]

Summary of Promising Practices

Gordon and Wilkerson summarize the ideas and practices that show promise in compensatory programs:

1. Effective teaching - Teachers who are judged to be successful are those:
    a. "Who have developed sensitivity to the special needs, the variety of learning patterns, and the learning strengths and weaknesses of their pupils," and
    b. "Who have also developed a wide variety of instructional techniques and methodologies by which they communicate knowledge with which they are familiar, and attitudes of respect and expectation which they strongly hold."
2. Child-parent-teacher motivation - "Few programs have generated more enthusiasm for learning or better pupil gains than those which involve teachers, parents, and children in active and creative motivational campaigns."
3. New materials and technology - "The better material . . . not only includes more appropriate graphic art but the prose is more pertinent to the realities of the pupil's life."
4. Peer teaching and learning - ". . . some programs have caused children to make significant gains in academic achievement as a result of helping other children learn."

5. Psycho-educational diagnosis and remediation - "The higher incidence of developmental defects and learning disabilities makes careful psycho-educational diagnosis of crucial significance in programs serving these children. Obviously, it is not enough to diagnose; prescription and remedy must follow."

6. Learning task specific grouping - "Grouping of youngsters for instruction should flow from the nature of the learning task and not from the bias of the teacher or the school system. In work with disadvantaged children the social gains which may also be derived from flexible groupings should not be ignored."

7. Extensions of the school - "Where competing forces operate outside of school, it is often necessary to extend the school day, week, or year so as to increase the period during which the school's influence may be felt."

8. Staffing - The more promising trends give emphasis to:

   a. The "selection of teachers who have good basic backgrounds in academic disciplines, combined with particularly good instructional skill."

   b. Increasing stress on the use of indigenous nonprofessionals as school aides.

   c. Stress on quantity of staff.

   d. Stress on the use of male models. Where men are rare on the regular staff, use is made of visitors and part-time people.

   e. Use of a wide variety of supporting staffs such as social workers, psychologists, physicians, nurses, community organizers, remedial specialists, guidance specialists, and home-school liaison officers "drawn from the surrounding community."[106]

A Significant Program

The program of the U.S. Army Special Training Units that enabled the large numbers of illiterate and non-English-speaking men who were inducted during World War II to reach an equivalence of fourth grade level of attainment has some important suggestions to offer to programs planned to provide for the educationally deprived. The original program as such cannot be implemented in the regular school situation but the principles derived from this program may be applied with probable equal success in the classrooms.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

One of the first innovations evolved was the development and use of a test that required very limited reading ability, The Visual Classification Test, to replace The Army General Classification Test in gauging the ability of the disadvantaged men. On the basis of the tests in reading, language and arithmetic administered at the start of the training cycle, the men were classified into four homogeneous groups.

The next innovation evolved was the use of instructional materials that were closely related to the everyday experiences of the men. The textbooks included discussions of familiar problems and responsibilities, such as writing letters, keeping a budget and taking care of the barracks. Other useful information was offered via filmstrips. The filmstrips were also used to present widely used words, phrases and sentences. The visual aids in the form of filmstrips, films, and graphic portfolios were used to promote comprehension.

The third innovation was the use of functional instructional methods. The filmstrip approach was used in the initial vocabulary acquisition. After the men were able to pronounce and use the words in the first language filmstrip, they were introduced to the textbooks. With emphasis on such skills as getting the central idea of a paragraph, noting details, organizing information and following directions, instruction in silent and oral reading was rapidly advanced. The academic work in reading, writing, arithmetic, spelling, and oral expression was closely related. An example of this was the writing of letters by the men to their families and friends describing their activities. These letters brought replies which the men read and answered.

The fourth innovation evolved was that of the instructor who was vitally concerned with clear and accurate communication. Because the class size seldom exceeded twelve members, it was possible to give each person individual attention and guidance. Initial learning difficulties could be easily detected and overcome at their onset. There was opportunity provided for the study of each man's special interests and needs for the encouragement of suitable individual reading.

A salvage rate of 93 percent was accomplished during an average instructional period of eight weeks. The combined use of the innovations cited above were given credit for this success. This prompted the initiation of a follow-up literacy program for the men who had participated in the first program toward the end of World War II.[107] Recently the Army activated a modified version of this program to train men who had been previously rejected for service because of low mental ability.[108]

Witty, who had made the study of the Army's special training programs, states that the projects demonstrate "that the mass of American youth are educable." He cites the following as "certain basic principles of learning which are of importance in teaching the educationally retarded and disadvantaged pupil":

1. Use of functional instructional materials and methods.
2. Recognizing the importance of the interest factor and incorporating it in planning programs for the educationally disadvantaged pupils.
3. Recognizing the basic needs of the pupil in planning his program in reading.
4. The teacher was the most significant single factor in determining the success of the Army program. Similarly, he plays a major role in a program for the educationally disadvantaged.[109]

Evaluative Comments

Joseph Alsop stated that the Civil Rights Commission's report on racial isolation of the schools "condemns every kind of *neighborhood school improvement as doomed to failure.*"[110] *The Commission's* report stated that compensatory education programs did not "show much success when judged by the standard of raising the achievement level of the disadvantaged children." It gives as an explanation of this failure that the compensatory programs by themselves do not "wholly compensate for the depressing effect which racial and social class isolation have on the disadvantaged."[111]

Coleman made the following observation:

> Whatever may be the combination of nonschool factors--poverty, community attitudes, low educational level of parents--which put minority children at a disadvantage in verbal and nonverbal skills when they enter the first grade. The fact is the schools have not overcome it.[112]

Gordon and Wilkerson in their critique of the compensatory programs cited the following:

1. No effort at evaluating innovations on the following criteria:
    a. precise description of the new educational practices,
    b. specific conditions under which they are introduced,
    c. populations to whom they are applied,
    d. careful identification of the target population,

   e. appropriate control groups for whom specified criterion measures are established, and

   f. collection and analysis of data appropriate to the measures identified.

2. The programs suffered from the difficulty of having been based on sentiment rather than on fact.

3. Few of the innovations were based on identifiable theoretical premises or verifiable hypotheses.

4. Little attention has been given to investigating the overall appropriateness of contemporary educational processes.

5. In the programs for the dropouts and potential dropouts, the school has failed to identify approaches to the curriculum content and organization that take into account the special learning problems of persons who are essentially adult but developmentally handicapped.

6. There has been no basic alteration in the teaching-learning process in the programs that have been initiated.

7. Many of the programs do not consistently meet the needs of the children they enroll.[113]

Sentiments similar to those stated above are contained in the evaluative study by the Center for Urban Education of the much publicized More Effective Schools Program of New York City:

> . . . the basic weakness of the program, . . . centered about the functioning of teachers, . . . attributed to inexperience and lack of preparation . . . that in the absence of specific preparation, teachers have not revised techniques of instruction to obtain the presumed instructional advantages of the small class and the availability of specialized instruction. In view of this, the lack of academic progress is not surprising.[114]

A capsule summary of the causes for the failure of the compensatory programs is contained in one of the summary statements made by the National Advisory Council on the Education of Disadvantaged Children, after it had evaluated the summer school projects for disadvantaged pupils that were funded under Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. The summary statement is as follows:

> For the most part, however, projects are piecemeal fragmented efforts at remediation or vaguely directed "enrichment." It is extremely rare to find strategically planned, comprehensive programs for change based on four essential needs: adapting academic content to the special problems of disadvantaged children, improved inservice training of teachers, attention to nutrition and other health needs, and involvement of parents and community agencies in planning and assistance to school programs.[115]

Promising Proposals

Gordon and Wilkerson state that "despite all of our current efforts tremendous gains are not yet being achieved in upgrading educational achievement in socially disadvantaged child . . . because we have not yet found the right answers to the problem." But they state that we cannot afford to wait for the answers because the "presence of these children in our schools, the demands of increasingly impatient communities, and the requirements of an increasingly complex society demand that we apply the best that is currently available even as we seek to improve."[116] Some of these "best" ideas and practices have been discussed and summarized in the sections on promising practices and a significant program.

There are several proposals that are now being considered by many school systems that can provide some of the answers that are being sought. These proposals have two basic features: to substantially improve the quality of education and to assure a more heterogeneous school population by broadening the school attendance areas. The feature of improving the quality of education implies that those practices that have been found to be promising in the present compensatory programs--teacher training, modification of textbooks, functional innovations in teaching, among others--are to be incorporated into the proposed programs and that these programs will be improved upon with the accumulation of experience. The proposals that have been advanced can be placed into three categories: supplementary centers and magnet schools, educational complexes, and educational parks.[117]

Supplementary Centers and Magnet Schools

Supplementary centers are designed to provide specialized educational programs for large groups of students. A child might spend a few days a week or a few days a year at the center depending on the plans adopted.

Mount Vernon, New York, developed plans for a facility in which up to 6,500 elementary children would spend 40 percent of their time.

It would be so organized that the children would be grouped on the basis of interest, need and ability without regard to age and grade. Subject specialists would handle much of the classwork and the program is designed to supplement the basic academic skills taught in the neighborhood schools.

The supplementary center operating in Cleveland provides 14,000 sixth graders in the city's public and parochial schools with special educational programs. The areas of study include local history, science and the space age. About 300 children attend each day on a racially integrated basis. Each class remains with its teacher, but combines with other classes for the various activities.[118]

The magnet school will be a variation of the specialized high schools such as the Bronx Science of New York and Boston Latin of Boston. It will offer specialized courses to attract pupils from different racial and social class backgrounds. Philadelphia has proposed to set up three schools where each would specialize in one of the following areas: commerce and business, space and aeronautical science or government and human service. Also, middle schools would be set up to include individualized instruction, teaching innovations and flexible grouping. This concept would be carried to the elementary level where schools would be set up to include intensive programs in reading and science and to stress individual attention to students.[119]

Los Angeles plans to convert three senior high and four junior high schools to magnet schools. A special center will be installed in each school offering intensive instruction in one or more of the advanced curriculum areas, such as data processing, foreign languages and advanced mathematics. A student participating in this program will spend part of the school day in the neighborhood school, then will be transported to the magnet school for the special course work.[120]

The magnet schools and supplementary centers have some advantages over the traditional school arrangements but each type has its limitations. The supplementary centers serve pupils on an intermittent basis and often do not provide an extended and substantial experience in desegregated settings. Magnet schools are limited by the available space. In both cases they have little effect on the regular schools.[121]

Educational Complexes

Educational complexes, which make up the second category of proposals, broaden their attendance areas by grouping the existing schools and consolidating their attendance zones. Thus, specialized teachers and facilities are made available to more students.[122]

In the New York proposal, two to five primary schools and one or two middle schools are combined to form clusters. The primary schools share facilities, faculties and special staff. A senior administrator would administer the complex and would be given "authority and autonomy to develop a program which meets appropriate city-wide standards but is also relevant to the needs of the locality." Frequent association among students and parents of the several units in the complex will be encouraged. The relations between the parent and teacher and parent and school will be built on the bases of both the individual school and the complex. It is felt that the children will derive dual benefits from the school close to home and having membership in a larger more diverse educational and social community.[123]

Educational Parks

The idea of educational parks has received much attention from educators and city school systems. There are several variations of this proposal. In the most widely accepted concept, all educational levels, from preschool through higher education, would be placed in a single campus or site to serve the entire community. The larger teaching staff of the educational park will enable it to provide more specialists and teachers with more diverse training and interests to meet the special needs of the children. A more flexible grouping plan could be provided to make possible new approaches to teaching and learning. The heart of the park will be the resource center, a combination library and a computerized teaching systems center. The elementary, junior high and senior high schools will each have their own buildings, which will be clustered around the resource center. And where possible, the best cultural institutions that the district can offer, such as the planetarium, aquarium, field museum, art center and recreational facilities, will be located on the grounds of the park.[124]

Another variation which is proposed for a large metropolitan district would be to draw students from other areas. The plans proposed for an educational park system in Syracuse, New York, is an example of this. It is proposed that four parks, each containing five buildings for elementary classrooms, and one central school for specialized services and facilities, be built on the outer edges of the city. There would be accommodations for about 5,000 elementary pupils in each.[125] The large cities have under study several variations of the educational parks plan. New York City is studying plans to organize a park which would serve only a section of the city. In this park, it is proposed to have four K-4 schools for about 2,800 children, four 5-8 middle schools to enroll about 3,600 students and a comprehensive high school to serve 4,000 students.[126]

In the plan that Pittsburgh is studying, five parks serving 15,000 to 20,000 secondary students will be built. Every secondary school student enrolled in Pittsburgh's public schools would attend one of these parks, which will be so located that each would have a racially and socially homogeneous student body.[127]

Educators who have studied the size and complexity of the educational parks have concluded that with proper planning, the parks may make possible higher quality education and provide a wider range of possibilities for individualized instruction through non-graded classes and team teaching. It could provide for diversity and innovations not now possible in the small school units. The plans to build cooperative ties with universities would facilitate in-service training of professional teachers and stimulate more innovations.[128]

Educational parks will be expensive even with the economics resulting from the consolidation of resources. One of the items, other than the school facilities, that make up this high cost would be that of transportation. Because of the enlarged attendance areas, there would be an increased need to transport the children. The feasibility of the educational park plans would depend on the transportation costs which would in turn depend on the availability of mass transportation. The Civil Rights Commission contends that this plan of educational parks is feasible if the costs are shared by the federal, state, and local governments. It poses a question--"Whether the desegregation of public schools and the improvement of the quality of education for all children are goals of sufficient importance to justify the required investment of energy and resources."[129]

Summary

This chapter has attempted to provide the reader with some of the thoughts and practices in compensatory education programs that are now current in the nation. An attempt was also made to present four issues--busing, cultural conflict versus deprivation, conflicting demands made on the schools, and the use of the standardized tests--that have been raised about the subject of this study. In the busing issue, there have been conflicting claims made about the success of this method. In the issue regarding cultural conflict versus deprivation, the proponents have differed over cultural values against factors of economic and cultural deprivation. In the third issue discussed, the conflicting demands made on the schools, it has been stated that the civil rights stress on racial integration in all schools have focused on two conflicting demands, the demand for academic excellence for large groups of pupils and the demand for academic competence in all pupils. In the last issue discussed, the use of instruments based on standardized tests has been questioned when applied to the disadvantaged pupils.

The discussion on the issues together with a brief history of the compensatory education programs and the brief discussion of the characteristics of the disadvantaged child should provide a background about the compensatory methods now being practiced. These methods are classified under three divisions or approaches--teacher training and recruitment, educational innovations, and administrative modifications. A summary of the promising practices and a brief review of a significant program is appended to the discussion of the three approaches. A finding brought out in these three sections indicate the importance of the teacher in the success of the compensatory program.

The following section of evaluatory comments reiterates the importance of the teacher and summarizes the reasons for the lack of success of the compensatory projects. This section together with the preceding section with its two appendages should indicate the current status of the programs on the mainland.

The last section contains a discussion of the four promising proposals that have been advanced to improve the quality of compensatory education and to provide for a more heterogeneous school population. These proposals, especially the one on the educational parks, should indicate to the reader that the educators are aware of the shortcomings of single direction programs and that attempts should concentrate on comprehensive approaches.

The chapters that follow will attempt to describe the programs which have been initiated in Hawaii and the successes (or lack of) that have been attained. Analyses of these programs will be made and the reasons for the poor results attained thus far will be discussed. Attempts will be made to discuss some possible alternatives that the Department can follow for improved results.

Chapter IV

COMPENSATORY EDUCATION PROGRAMS IN HAWAII

This section summarizes those educational programs now operating or being instituted by the Department which are deemed compensatory in nature, including also a number of programs which are school-related but outside the jurisdiction of the Department. The inventory covers those established by the following acts: (1) the Special Motivation Classes created by Act 125, SLH 1961; (2) a portion of the Vocational Education Act of 1963 (P.L. 88-210); (3) the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 (P.L. 88-452); (4) a portion of the Hawaiian Homes Commission Act of 1920, as amended by Act 4, SLH 1965; (5) Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 (P.L. 89-10); (6) Title I of the Demonstration Cities and Metropolitan Development Act of 1966 (P.L. 89-754); and (7) Act 299, SLH 1967, Progressive Neighborhoods Program.

The inventory is arranged chronologically to provide some historical perspective, and includes brief descriptions of the legal provisions, the administration of the program, the types of activities and services provided, and funding.

Act 125 (SLH 1961), Special Motivation Program

Legal Provisions. Under Act 125, SLH 1961, an appropriation of $45,000 was made to establish a pilot school-work experience program in 1961. The program title of Work Experience was changed to Special Motivation by legislative action in 1965.

The program is intended "as a means of combating the dropout problem by offering to the unmotivated potential dropout extra supportive help by group and individual guidance, tutoring, a modified curriculum, and scheduling tailored to each student as an individual, whereby conditions of social, emotional and academic maladjustment, related to school, may be alleviated."[1]

Administration. Responsibility for the program is lodged in the Special Education Branch of the Department, which provides operational guidelines, curriculum development in-service training for district and school staffs, consultation services, and evaluation. The district and schools are responsible for implementation and immediate supervision. For each school where the program is placed, an off-ratio teacher is assigned to handle a maximum of 20 students.

Description. Various operational designs have been tried with the Special Motivation classes since their inception. The groups now located at Farrington, Kaimuki High, Castle, Kauai High, Campbell High, Waipahu High, Waianae Intermediate, August Ahrens Elementary, and Waipahu Elementary each operate according to school needs and the principal's judgment. In general they follow schedules that are individualized combinations of special class work, regular class work, part-time jobs, technical school. Two years is the maximum a student can remain in the program.

Funding. A sum of $142,710 has been allocated for the Special Motivation Program. Annual allocations and expenditures were as follows:

	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68	Total
Allocation	$47,360	$47,040	$48,310	$142,710
Expenditures	$47,360	$47,040	$48,310	$142,710

Vocational Education Act of 1963 (P.L. 88-210)

Legal Provisions. "The act authorizes vocational education programs for persons in high school, for those out of high school available for full-time study, for persons who are unemployed or underemployed, and for persons who have academic or socio-economic handicaps that prevent them from succeeding in the regular vocational education program."[2]

Under the provisions set forth in section 13 of the Act, federal funds are made available for work study programs. These programs are designed to provide employment for vocational education students "in need of the earnings from such employment to commence or continue his vocational education program."[3]

An annual state plan is submitted to the U. S. Commissioner of Education through the State Board of Vocational Education, which also serves as the Board of Education, State of Hawaii. A supplementary plan must be submitted to satisfy conditions under section 13, provisions for a work study program.

Administration. The Director of Vocational Education has the primary administrative responsibility for the program. Under his supervision and direction, plans are finalized and submitted for approval in the State Plan. Individual projects, after receiving approval, are then administered by the local administrator. For example, school projects are the responsibility of their respective principals.

Description. Two projects have been approved for the fiscal year 1967-68: (1) one at McKinley High School as part of the Special Motivation Program to develop manual skills in horticulture, and (2) a part-time cooperative training program in industry at Konawaena High School to provide after school and weekend on-the-job work experience. Both are designed to reach potential dropouts by offering special provisions.

Funding. For this first year of operation the following allocations have been made:

McKinley Horticulture Project. . . .	$14,640
Konawaena Cooperative Program. . . .	11,955
Total	$26,595

Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 (P.L. 88-452)

Legal Provisions. Sections 201 and 202 of Title II, P.L. 88-452, establish urban and rural Community Action Programs to mobilize all possible community resources, public or private, to combat poverty and its causes through "developing employment opportunities, improving human performance, motivation, and productivity, or bettering the conditions under which people live, learn, and work." The Community Action Programs are to be developed, conducted, and administered "with the maximum feasible participation of residents of the areas and members of the groups served." Either a public or private nonprofit agency or a combination thereof is to administer or coordinate the programs.[4]

Administration. Each applicant agency, by contractual agreement with the U. S. Office of Economic Opportunity, is responsible for the development, conduct and administration of the Community Action Program. Applicant delegated agencies can include: (1) governmental divisions, such as the Department of Education, Department of Labor, Youth Development Center, etc.; (2) private agencies like the Young Women's Christian Association of Oahu, Susannah Wesley Community Center, etc.; and (3) local community councils, such as Koko Head, Kalihi Valley, Palolo councils, etc.

Upon request from an applicant agency, the State Technical Assistance Agency (Hawaii Office of Economic Opportunity) can provide assistance in the planning, organizing and developing of Community Action Programs. Such assistance can be provided through the use of full-time staff or consultants.

Description.[5] The educational programs funded under the Economic Opportunity Act have been in two areas, preschool/kindergarten and secondary/post-secondary levels. Although most of these programs have been delegated to the Department to operate, several are operated by other private and quasi-public agencies.

Head Start Programs--Three types of Head Start programs are now in operation: Full-Year (or Winter) Head Start Program, Summer Head Start Program, and the Head Start Follow Through Program. All three have basically the same purpose: to help disadvantaged children toward successful schooling by improving their health and physical ability, increasing their verbal and conceptual skills, developing their self-confidence and social skills, involving their parents in joint activities, and providing appropriate social services for the family. Follow Through, however, has the added purpose of assisting Head Start children who are enrolled in kindergarten to maintain the gains made in the earlier program.[6]

(1) The Full-Year Head Start Program, now in its third year, is operated for ten months, with classes meeting five days a week. Of the eighteen projects funded by the Office of Economic Opportunity, eight have been delegated to the Department to operate. The others have been delegated by the various community action groups to such local agencies as the Palolo Community Council, the Palama Interchurch Council, Susannah Wesley Home, and others. Projects on Kauai and Maui have been similarly delegated.

Full-Year Head Start has no central coordinator in the state office, inasmuch as the classes are operated as part of the regular school program. Each principal is responsible for the conduct and supervision of the program in his school.

The most recent federal grant for Full-Year Head Start is for $758,097 for the period April 1, 1967 to March 31, 1968. The program enrolls about 892 preschool children who are at least three years old.

(2) Summer Head Start is for children eligible to enroll as kindergarteners or first graders in the fall following the summer program. The program is six weeks in duration, and classes run the full day. The Department is the operating delegate for the entire Summer Head Start Program in the State. A coordinator directs the program.

During the summer of 1967, approximately 2,700 preschool children were enrolled under a federal grant of $347,401.

(3) The Follow Through Program initiated this year picks up the children who have participated in the Full-Year Head Start Program the previous year. Only a small beginning has been made with a pilot project, "Hoomau," established at three centers (Lanakila, Palolo, and Halawa Elementary schools). Eight kindergarten classes of twelve children each have been set up. An instructional team consisting of kindergarten teachers, teacher aides, volunteers and a language arts resource teacher has been organized at each school. The services of a social worker are also available.

This project will undergo constant revision during the first year, and plans are to enlarge this program in the fall of 1968 and to link it with the Summer and Full-Year

Head Start Programs. A coordinator responsible to the Assistant Superintendent for Instructional Services administers the program at the three centers.

For this first year of operation the sum of $82,923 has been requested from the federal government.[7]

Secondary/Post-Secondary Programs--Three programs funded by the Economic Opportunity Act aim primarily at motivating older students and preventing school dropouts.

(1) Initiated in 1965 and confined to the city of Honolulu, the Tutorial, Guidance and Motivation Project aims "to assist underachieving, disadvantaged students increase their motivation to learn by utilizing the one-to-one relationship and warm personal interest of the tutors."[8] Interested University or high school students or adult volunteers are assigned to students on the basis of need, interest, sex, age, and educational experience. Through providing the underachiever a means of identification with a model adult relationship, the program seeks to broaden the student's horizon of interests, increase his academic competence, gain self-confidence, and aspire to goals otherwise ignored. Approximately 110 students citywide are beneficiaries of the program.

The Young Women's Christian Association of Oahu is the operating delegate for this program. The source of funding is federal, supplemented by local funds. Allocations thus far have been as follows:

	Federal	Local	Total
1965-66	17,912	2,250	20,162
1966-67	17,216	15,316	32,532
4/1/67-8/30/67	12,597	2,262	14,859

(2) Hawaii Upward Bound, started in 1966, is a pre-college preparatory program aimed at remedying deficient academic preparation and personal motivation in disadvantaged secondary students with potential to go on to college. Two distinct groups of students are served: high school graduates, or "bridge" students, who take pre-college courses in speech and English; and high school seniors, who attend classes in English, mathematics, drama, music and/or art. Follow-up work during the school year includes tutoring, counseling, remedial work, study for the College Board examinations, and planning a program of financial assistance for those who need it.

The University of Hawaii Youth Development Center operates the program. Although the program is statewide, the target area is Oahu. Some 110 students have participated in the program.

Funding is largely federal with some local contributions. For the period 1966-67, the funding was as follows:

	Federal	Local	Total
1966-67	91,152	11,794	102,946
6/1/67-5/30/68	91,151	10,128	101,279

(3) The Neighborhood Youth Corps is a nationwide program administered by the U. S. Department of Labor under a delegation of authority from the Office of Economic Opportunity. It is a year-round work-training program for disadvantaged youth. The program goals are to prevent dropouts, to assist students to continue or to resume their education, and to develop their maximum occupational potential. Work experience and on-the-job training (with pay), remedial instruction, health services, and counseling are ingredients of the program.

There are two aspects of this program in Hawaii, in-school and out-of-school.

The Neighborhood Youth Corps In-School Program is sponsored and operated statewide by the Department of Education for the benefit of students between the ages of 16 and 21. Enrollees are assigned tasks within the school which fulfill a basic community or school need which cannot be completed by the existing staff. They serve as office, library, cafeteria, teacher, athletic, and custodial aides; they work as assistants in print shop, school farm, and parking lot; they serve as telephone operators. The students may enroll for remedial classes and vocational classes. They receive counseling help if they plan on post-high school education and job referrals if they plan on full-time employment.

A State Project Coordinator for the Neighborhood Youth Corps, responsible to the Director of Special Services, administers the statewide program, develops plans, guidelines, and maintains external relations. Immediate supervision of school programs is provided by Neighborhood Youth Corps Supervisors who are school staff members.

Funding for the period 6/14/65 to 12/31/67 and number of enrollees are shown below:

COMPENSATORY EDUCATION PROGRAMS IN HAWAII

	Federal	Local	Total	Number of Participants
3/24/65-6/30/65	145,250	117,870	263,120	930
6/14/65-9/30/65	429,730	64,620	494,350	1,415
10/1/65-9/2/66	210,880	33,500	244,380	500
6/13/66-12/31/66	279,590	52,680	332,270	
1/1/67-12/31/67	430,510	79,090	509,600	875

The Neighborhood Youth Corps Out-of-School Program is open to youth from low-income families who dropped out of school, are unemployed and are 16-21 years of age. Enrollees are assigned as aides in recreation programs conducted by government agencies and community groups, as maintenance aides in street, highways and parks beautification projects, as teacher aides in community action Head Start Programs, and as clerical help in the offices of various participating agencies.

The out-of-school program serves an important intermediary function in that short-term enrollees may be programmed into a number of other avenues: a return to school, Job Corps, Manpower Development Training, Multi-Occupational Training Classes, Apprenticeship program, or permanent job placement. Long-term enrollees may be programmed into training as nurse's aides, engineering aides, and the like.

Sponsor for this program is the City and County of Honolulu, with administration in the Office of the Urban Renewal Coordinator.

Funding and participation for the past two years have been as follows:

	Federal	Local	Total	Number of Participants
6/15/65-10/31/65	169,570	59,686	229,256	364
11/1/65-9/19/66	201,620	53,230	254,850	175
9/1/65-8/30/67	298,230	57,550	355,780	110
6/6/66-9/2/66	64,910	10,430	75,350	150
6/16/67-9/15/67	140,370	17,810	158,180	335

A part of the Neighborhood Youth Corps Out-of-School Program is administered by the State Department of Land and Natural Resources with target populations statewide. This program enrolls youths interested in the field of forestry--nurseries, reforestation, timber land improvement, state parks and historic sites development, forest-type recreation, and the like. The tasks assigned are intended to train enrollees in basic work skills and habits and increase their opportunities for permanent employment.

Funding and participants were as follows for the period June 1965 to September 1967:

	Federal	Local	Total	Number of Participants
6/15/65-1/31/66	156,890	57,760	214,650	354
2/1/66-2/28/67	145,580	52,162	197,742	125
3/1/67-9/8/67	71,800	31,740	103,540	80

Act 4 (SLH 1965), Hawaiian Home Lands

Legal Provisions. The Hawaiian Homes Commission Act of 1920, as amended by Act 4 in 1965 provides for the development of educational projects "to broaden as much as possible the educational experiences and horizons"[9] and the motivation of the children of the lessees, particularly preschool and elementary children. It specifies that a special account be established within the Hawaiian Home-Development Fund, upon which the Department of Education, with the written approval of the Governor, can draw from time to time. It further specifies that the educational projects be developed and directed by the Department following consultation with the University of Hawaii and the Department of Hawaiian Home Lands.[10]

Administration. The Office of the Superintendent has direct responsibility for determining the nature of the school projects and the allocation of funds. An advisory committee composed of representatives of the Hawaiian Homes Commission, the University, the Department, Kamehameha Schools, and the Liliuokalani Trust assists in the discharge of this responsibility. Although the Department does not specify a formal procedure for submitting and implementing Act 4 projects, the informal steps are as follows: (1) identification of beneficiaries and the development of project proposals by qualifying schools; (2) submission of the proposal to the Superintendent; (3) review of the proposal by the advisory committee; (4) approval by the Governor; (5) implementation, supervision, and evaluation by the District Superintendent; (6) review of final reports by the Superintendent and the advisory committee.[11]

A coordinator was hired in September 1967 with Act 4 funds to assist in the long-range planning, development and evaluation of projects. The coordinator is responsible to the Executive Director of Hawaiian Home Lands and to the Superintendent.

Description. A total of 11 projects affecting approximately 4,000 children have been developed and initiated since 1965, including 5 which are now in effect in 12 elementary schools in all districts except Central District. Projects have included the following kinds of services and activities:

COMPENSATORY EDUCATION PROGRAMS IN HAWAII

(1) Reading and Language Improvement Projects - Special instructional programs, new methods, and materials.

(2) Classroom Assistants - Teacher aides to free teachers for instructional duties, particularly in grades 1, 2, and 3.

(3) Part-Time Professional Services

  (a) Counseling Services - Counseling help for pupils and parents.

  (b) Tutorial Services - Individual and small group help for secondary students beyond the school day.

  (c) Library Services - Professional library services before and after school hours.

(4) Health Assistants - Aides to care for sick children, contact parents, administer first aid, and maintain health records.

(5) Excursion Subsidies - Transportation and other expenses for educational and cultural excursions on home and neighbor islands.

(6) Reading Materials and Workbooks - Additional books and materials for instructional and tutorial programs.

(7) Preschool Facilities and Classes - Buildings, staff and equipment for pre-kindergarten program for Hawaiian Home Lands children.

(8) VISTA Support - Supplemental funds for VISTA Programs operating on Hawaiian Home Lands.

(9) Creative Expression and Hawaiiana Project - Learning of Hawaiian culture and heritage to encourage positive self-image among Hawaiian children.

(10) Equipment and Supplies - Materials supplied to existing remedial reading classes, tutorial programs designed for slow learners, and classroom assistants.

(11) Public Library Development - Easy-to-read books for libraries serving Hawaiian Home Lands areas.

Funding. Thirty percent of the total revenue derived from the leasing of state lands used in the cultivation of sugar cane and from the leasing of water licenses goes into the Hawaiian Home-Loan Fund. Of this income, 85 percent of the sum exceeding the $5,000,000 ceiling for the Home-Loan Fund may be used for educational purposes on the approval of the Governor.[12]

Since the inception of the program, a total of $741,065 has been allocated for Hawaiian Home education projects. Annual allocations and expenditures are detailed in Tables 3 and 4.

Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 (P.L. 89-10)

Legal Provisions. The first of six titles under this Act was a massive national response to correct glaring inequalities in educational opportunities found among the various states. Title I provides funds to local school districts to develop, expand, and improve educational programs designed especially to prevent or overcome learning handicaps associated with the poor. The funds may be used for a wide variety of programs from kindergarten to grade 12, including remedial instruction, pre-kindergarten classes, health and welfare services needed to overcome learning handicaps, physical education and recreation services, vocational education, counseling and guidance services, instructional materials and equipment, supplementary school services, teacher training, and construction where required.[13]

Administration. The Title I program is administered statewide by a Director who has responsibility for determining the number of eligible children by school attendance areas and of making tentative allocations. The Director also reviews the project proposals submitted by the schools to ensure they are within the intent of the Act and evaluates the program annually.

The formal procedures for funding, developing, approving, implementing, and evaluating Title I projects are described in the Department's publication, "Title I, P.L. 89-10 Guidelines for Fiscal Year 1968."[14] In summary they are:

1. Schools qualifying for aid are pro-rated a specific amount of money by the State Director of Title I.
2. Schools develop project proposals in consultation with the private schools in the area which are entitled to share in the benefits and clear the project with the Joint Working Committee (composed of representatives from the school, the private schools, and the Community Action Program).

Table 3

ALLOCATION AND EXPENDITURES OF HAWAIIAN HOMES PROJECTS 1965-1968

	Fiscal Year			
	1966	1967	1968	Total
Allocation to State	$250,000	$284,487	$221,065	$741,065
ACTUAL EXPENDITURES:				
Personnel Services (Teachers, Health Assistants, Part-Time Services, Classroom Assistants, etc.)	$ 83,822[a]	$182,565[b]		
Language Improvements	9,000	22,661		
Excursion Subsidy	30,167	25,394		
Reading Materials	5,098	3,773		
Public Library Development	5,104			
Equipment and Supplies	10,874			
Facilities	95,510	17,696		
TOTAL	$239,575	$252,089	$221,065	$712,729

Source: Department of Education, Office of Business Services.

[a] Includes expenditures of $68,427 for an estimated 21 classroom assistants.

[b] Includes expenditures of $121,551 for an estimated 36 classroom assistants.

Table 4

HAWAIIAN HOMES COMMISSION EDUCATIONAL PROJECTS FOR FISCAL YEAR 1967-68

Description of Projects	Allocation
Coordinator's Funds	$ 15,000
Papakolea Preschool (Honolulu District)	45,500
Nanaikapono Preschool (Leeward District)	17,000
Nanaikapono School Health Services (Leeward District)	3,700
Classroom Assistants; Maintain the 1966-67 Services	119,565
Keaukaha--Linguist for Community Study Center (Hawaii District)	5,200
Reserve	15,100
TOTAL	$221,065

Source: Office of Business Services, Department of Education.

3. Project proposals are cleared through the District Coordinating Committee (also composed of Community Action Program and public and private school representatives), and submitted to the State Director for Title I.

4. The Director reviews the projects to insure that they meet the statutory requirements.

5. The projects are submitted to the Superintendent for approval.

6. Upon the Superintendent's approval, projects are implemented, supervised, and evaluated by the District Superintendent. The District Superintendents usually delegate this authority to the school principal.

Description. According to the Title I First Year Statistical Report[15] 73,100 children participated in 96 projects during fiscal year 1966. There were 17,298 participants in 116 projects during fiscal year 1967[16] and an estimated 8,167 participants in 106 regular Title I projects for the current fiscal year 1968.[17] The projects can be classified roughly into one or more of the following categories; many of them have included several activities and services running concurrently:

(1) Academic Improvement Projects. Special course work in science, mathematics, social studies, music, physical education, and the like.

(2) Reading and Language Development Projects. Intensified instruction in reading and oral language skills. Language arts instruction received top priority throughout.

(3) Preschool Programs. Special provisions for language development, reading readiness, improvement of self-concept, motivation, and social skills of preschool children.

(4) Summer Programs (Instructional and Recreational). Extensions of school programs into the summer on funds unexpended during the school year.

(5) Dropout Programs. Work-study-recreation programs to reduce school alienation among secondary students.

(6) Excursion Subsidies. Field trips to museums, historic places, civic buildings, etc., attendance at concerts, plays, etc., to provide first-hand experiences and build background.

(7) Food Services. Free lunches and juice for needy children.

(8) Instructional Materials. Additional books and materials for instructional and tutorial programs.

(9) Guidance and Counseling Services. Special counseling, psychological evaluations for children and parents.

(10) Health Education and Health Services. Special health instruction and provision of needed medical and dental services.

(11) Classroom Assistants. Teacher aides to assume routines and nonprofessional duties to free teachers for individual instruction.

(12) Library Services. Library services beyond the school day and during summer; special purchases of library books.

(13) Tutorial Services. Individual or small-group help for underachievers during and beyond the school day.

(14) Multi-Media and Resource Centers and Language Laboratories. School or district centers to collect, produce, distribute and maintain various audio-visual equipment, software, and services to enrich classroom instruction and provide specialized help to teachers in creating instructional materials and using audio-visual resources.

(15) Television. Expansion and intensive use of Educational Television media.

(16) In-Service Training. Workshops, seminars, and institutes for teachers working with disadvantaged children.

(17) Community Study Center. Study facilities open to pupils, parents and community located either on- or off-school premises.

Funding. The amount that is allocated by the U. S. Office of Education is based on the number of school-age children, ages 5 to 17, from low-income families in attendance areas with high concentrations of such families, multiplied by one-half the average per pupil expenditure. Low-income families are defined as those who earned less than $2,000 annually, and those who received more than $2,000 in aid to dependent children under the Social Security Act.[18]

Once the allocations are made to the local school districts, the basis of pupil selection and participation is not economic deprivation but educational deprivation. The educationally deprived are defined by the federal government as those children who "have the greatest need for special educational assistance in order that their level of educational attainment may be raised to that appropriate for children of their age."[19]

Since the inception of the program in 1965, a total of $6,845,453 has been appropriated for Title I projects in the State of Hawaii. (Annual allocations and expenditures for Hawaii are shown in Tables 5 and 6.)

Title I of the Demonstration Cities and Metropolitan Development Act of 1966 (P.L. 89-754)

Legal Provisions. Title I of this law, frequently referred to as the Model Cities Plan, provides for a comprehensive community approach to the problems of poverty. It encourages the economical concentration and coordination of federal, state, and local public and private efforts to improve the quality of life in cities large and small through improvement of the total physical environment and through educational and social services vital to health and welfare. It provides funds for the establishment of city demonstration programs containing imaginative ways to remove city blight; expand housing; create job opportunities; improve facilities and programs in education, recreation, and general culture; reduce the incidence of illness, crime, and delinquency; and generally to improve the conditions of living in the selected areas.

Administration. Under the provisions of the law, two target areas, Kalihi-Palama and Waianae have been selected for an intensive five-year development. Direct local responsibility for directing the Model Cities Program lies with the Honolulu Demonstration Agency, a committee designated by a resolution of the City Council and housed in the Office of the City Managing Director. Assisting the Agency in planning and implementing the program is a 100-member Model City Advisory Board composed of residents of the target areas, representatives from city, state and federal government, and representatives of citizen organizations, professional organizations, and civic groups. Much of the planning and execution of the program will be coordinated by a staff provided by the Urban Renewal Office. Upon federal approval of the final program, the Agency will appoint project directors from the Office of the City Managing Director to oversee the individual projects.[20]

Description. The education component of the Model Cities Program is now under planning by the Department of Education. A task force has been appointed to establish a work schedule, and a project staff composed of an educational planner-director and educational researchers has been created. The staff is to undertake a study of educational problems in the areas, gather essential data, identify problems and analyze them for causal factors, set goals, priorities, strategies and approaches. The sum of $99,000 has been requested by the Department for the planning phase.

Table 5

ESTIMATED ALLOCATIONS AND EXPENDITURES [illegible] R P.L. 89-10, TITLE I PROJECTS

	Fiscal Year 1966				Fiscal Year 1967				Fiscal Year 1968				
	Personnel	Supplies	Equipment	Total	Personnel	Supplies	Equipment	Total	Personnel	Supplies	Equipment	Total	Grand Total
Allocation to State				$2,472,222				$2,183,762				$2,189,469	$6,845,453
Expenditures by School Districts:													
Central	$ 14,878	$ 4,178	$ 45,969	$ 65,025	$ 62,170	$ 29,606	$ 19,637	$ 111,413	$ 70,257	$ 28,849	$ 3,812	$ 102,918	$ 279,356
Leeward	26,148	19,502	194,161	239,811	115,165	24,998	3,526	143,689	145,426	16,827	3,528	165,781	549,281
Honolulu	501,282	124,719	121,286	747,287	921,595	121,452	31,395	1,074,442	737,000	42,682	24,211	803,893	2,625,622
Windward	56,620	36,312	153,908	246,840	147,383	35,362	18,799	201,544	153,686	22,534	4,663	180,883	629,267
Kauai	4,040	5,169	39,196	48,405	61,786	12,312	4,874	78,972	65,815	11,389	3,967	81,171	208,548
Maui	39,118	33,260	26,156	98,534	94,554	22,306	4,906	121,766	86,895	27,663	1,439	115,997	336,297
Hawaii	36,027	34,850	92,174	163,051	261,892	77,033	27,408	366,333	253,559	70,665	7,669	331,893	861,277
TOTAL	$678,113	$257,990	$672,850	$1,608,953[a]	$1,664,545	$323,069	$110,545	$2,098,159	$1,512,638	$220,609	$49,289	$1,782,536[b]	$5,489,648

Source: Department of Education, Staff Specialists from the various school districts.

[a] Does not reflect summer school expenditures.

[b] Estimated expenditures.

Table 6

ESTIMATED NUMBER AND COST OF CLASSROOM ASSISTANTS EMPLOYED FOR FISCAL YEARS 1966-1968

	1965-66		1966-67		1967-68		3 Years Total	
	No.	Cost	No.	Cost	No.	Cost	No.	Cost
Honolulu	311	$411,654	78	$230,000	44	$167,000	433	$ 808,654
Central	3	12,800	12	38,693	11	38,693	26	79,851
Leeward	7	23,249	10	37,202	10	37,202	27	97,653
Windward	15	49,019	38	130,100	36	130,100	89	221,319
Kauai	--	--	4	12,814	6	18,428	10	31,342
Maui	24	26,420	20	66,278	4	17,584	48	110,282
Hawaii	24	20,327	54	183,600	46	164,220	124	368,147
TOTAL	384	$543,469	216	$698,687	157	$573,227	757	$1,717,248

Source: Department of Education, Staff Specialists from the various school districts.

It is expected that any programs developed for institution in these areas will be in large measure compensatory in nature.

Funding. The Secretary of Housing and Urban Development is authorized to make grants and provide technical assistance to enable city demonstration agencies to plan, develop, and carry out their programs. For the first year the City and County of Honolulu has been allocated the sum of $239,000 for planning purposes.

Act 299 (SLH 1967), Progressive Neighborhoods Program

Legal Provisions. Like the Model Cities Program, the Progressive Neighborhoods Program is a comprehensive community approach to the problem of deprivation. Enacted by the state legislature in 1967, the law provides for the development of exemplary neighborhoods in the Nanakuli-Maili-Waianae-Makaha areas through additional public resources or the reallocation of existing resources. The several parts of the Act provide for the establishment of an advisory panel, a task force, a model school program at Nanaikapono, health, medical, and social work services for children and residents in the Nanakuli area, self-improvement projects for homes and community facilities, and improvements to recreational facilities in Nanakuli.

Part III of the Act provides specifically for educational improvements at Nanaikapono School. It calls for innovative demonstration programs to be established at Nanaikapono, and it further provides for the design of a community-centered multipurpose library at the proposed Nanakuli High School site. It also authorizes the Department to conduct a two-week orientation workshop for new teachers in the area.

Administration. The Governor is responsible for the administration of the Progressive Neighborhoods Program. He appoints the seven-man task force, which is the executive body composed of representatives from the State's Departments of Education, Health, Labor, and Social Services, the Family Court, the Hawaii Office of Economic Opportunity, and the University of Hawaii.

The planning and working group is an Advisory Panel subdivided into three subpanels. The subpanels have community-wide representation and advisory input from University scholars representing relevant areas. Proposals for improvement are submitted through the Advisory Panel to the Task Force Committee for approval.

The subpanel on education has initiated planning for the model school project at Nanaikapono. The District Superintendent provides leadership through a liaison officer on his staff. Because Act 299 did not specify a completion date for the planning phase, the education project is less likely to be developed under the kinds of pressures characteristic of other legislation.

COMPENSATORY EDUCATION PROGRAMS IN HAWAII

Funding. The amount of $120,000 was appropriated to the Governor's Office for the planning phase. The Task Force approves expenditures ($10,000 was allocated for summer in-service training for teachers at Nanaikapono School).

Chapter V

ANALYSES, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

The purpose of this chapter is to assess the status of the various programs and to draw information that might be useful to educational planners in improving what now exists and in planning for and implementing future programs. The information contained in this chapter should be read with that purpose in mind. Furthermore, it must be viewed with the understanding of the special set of conditions and circumstances under which these compensatory programs were developed and implemented. Otherwise, the critique, which focuses principally on the general weaknesses revealed in the many programs, may be seen as unduly critical and unfair.

First, the programs are all recent. All the major developments have occurred since 1964; the largest, Title I of P.L. 89-10 is now only in its third year of operation. For the Department as well as for other school systems nationwide, the kinds of programs suggested under the federal acts were first-time through operations. The rawness and uncertainty of untried ventures are apparent in most of the programs. Tested operational models were scarce or nonexistent, and with no planning staff for the creation of new models, the schools were left to devise their own models. A high degree of trial and error approaches was an expected result. The recency of attention to the special educational needs of the disadvantaged also meant that schools had little access to the sources of knowledge regarding the specific nature of deprivation, its causes, and effective ways of coping with deficiencies. Although a considerable body of knowledge exists and the professional literature is expanding rapidly, relatively little is definitive and much of it still lies in the realm of research and the theoretical. Most of what has been applied to approaches and programs have yet to filter down into the field. As a result schools have suffered from a dearth of useful knowledge to apply.

Second, many of the programs were established under tremendous pressures from sources outside of the Department and on expectations that perhaps may have been unreasonably optimistic. For example, community enthusiasm and political pressures to "do something" for deprived preschool children and potential dropouts built up momentum to get programs going before careful thought, administrative planning, and curriculum development could be done. Disappointment over some of the results may be due to unrealistic expectations of programs that were hastily planned. On the other hand, it is likely that the "psychology of crisis" attending the initiation of these programs impelled them forward far faster than normal procedures could have.

Third, the influx of federal funds beginning in 1964 caught most state departments totally unprepared organizationally and administratively. There was literally no staff to handle the many aspects of planning. Sound long-range considerations, thoughtful weighing of alternatives, and careful screening of staff had to go by the board. In the absence of staff, already overloaded state and district personnel were impressed to develop proposals, budgets, program guidelines, while the appointment of directors and coordinators for the new programs were pushed through the normally long and sluggish channels of approval. As a matter of fact, the Department managed to organize itself to meet the expansion with amazing rapidity, but meantime the gap between specific planning and field operations widened. In this respect, curriculum development is the area that has suffered most.

A fourth source of difficulty lies in the provisions of the federal acts themselves, and the problems are several. The uncertainty of funding by Congress makes early and specific planning difficult. The short space of time allotted between the time that the level of funding is definite and the time implementation begins hinders effective planning. The normal recruitment period for teachers does not coincide with funding, so that staff commitments cannot be firm. The lateness of funding results in late starts for programs, so that Department and public expectations of the programs cannot be fulfilled. The lapsing factor in federal funds has also meant low priority purchases in many cases simply to use up the monies. And the federal timetable for reports on the programs has made careful evaluation difficult. These problems have been noted in an issue of the Congressional Quarterly.[1]

A fifth difficulty has been the lack of qualified staff. Not only is there a shortage of well-trained teachers; the location of schools in disadvantaged areas, particularly rural, makes recruitment and retention a problem. Some programs have suffered from inadequately trained staff.

A final point needs mention. When Title I was initiated in 1965, the emphasis was on creativity, innovation, and experimentation. Schools were enjoined to take a new look at an old problem and try promising solutions. The result was instant experimentation without much regard to development of a system to collect data on assumptions, hypotheses, designs, and results.

The analyses, conclusions and implications will be reported under three general categories: (1) administration; (2) programs; and (3) funding.

Administration

Analysis

A cursory examination of the administrative structure of compensatory education reveals that there are a multitude of administrators and coordinators (see Appendix C). A cursory examination of the administrative structure reveals that the State Director of Federal Programs, responsible directly to the Superintendent, is given the responsibility of administering and coordinating all federal funds. The Director of Title I, P.L. 89-10, has an equivalent salary classification as the Director of Federal Programs but is only responsible for one title and is not responsible to the Director of Federal Programs. Administrative responsibility is to the Assistant Superintendent of Instructional Services. The coordinator for the federally funded Neighborhood Youth Corps in-school program is responsible to the Director of the Special Services Branch but not to the Director of Federal Programs.

In another instance the coordinator for Act 4, Hawaiian Homes Projects, is responsible to the Executive Director of Hawaiian Homes Commission and the Superintendent. The Office of Instructional Services has no jurisdiction programmatically for the projects mounted in the schools. In yet another case the coordinator for the Follow Through Program (for which the Department is the sponsoring agency) is responsible directly to the Assistant Superintendent of Instructional Services but has no direct relationships with the Director of Elementary Education. The coordinator also has no formal relationships with the Department's Head Start Program, which, incidentally, although much larger, has no state coordinator.

To add to the confused picture, there is a multitude of directors, coordinators, and specialists who are outside the jurisdiction of the Department but who are involved in educational endeavors affecting students. School people must deal with numerous jurisdictions. The following is a partial listing:

1. The director of the Upward Bound Program is under the Youth Development Center of the University.

2. A director of the Neighborhood Youth Corps out-of-school program administers the work experience program for the City and County of Honolulu.

3. A director administers a Neighborhood Youth Corps work experience program for the Department of Land and Natural Resources.

4. A director of the Teacher Corps Program of the University's College of Education works with the schools on a teacher training program.

5. A director of Educational Guidance and Opportunity administers a counseling program for high and post-high students. The director of the federally funded guidance program is responsible to the Honolulu Council of Social Agencies.

6. A director of Work Experience administers the training program for the Department of Social Services on a grant from the Office of Economic Opportunity.

7. A director of the Hawaii Job Corps under the jurisdiction of the Department of Land and Natural Resources implements and supervises the Job Corps Program in Hawaii.

The many projects funded by the U. S. Office of Economic Opportunity operate through a network of community action groups (which are the applicants, or sponsoring bodies) and operating delegates (which administer the programs). Thus, the Honolulu Community Action Program can delegate the operation of Head Start classes to such agencies as the Department of Education, Susannah Wesley Community Center, Palolo Community Council, Palama Interchurch Council, and the like. In some cases the same agency can be both sponsor and operators of the program.

Conclusion

There is no logical order or hierarchy in the administrative structure of compensatory education. The special set of conditions and circumstances that has been elaborated in the introductory section of this chapter explains the current administrative predicament. Perhaps the most causative condition that was responsible for the uncoordinated administrative structure could be attributed to the federal requirements for appropriation. Federal requirements specify that "unobligated balances remaining at the close of each fiscal year would be withdrawn from expired appropriations."[2] The implication is clear, immediate inauguration of an administrative structure in order that the programs could be implemented without the loss of funds. Due to this fear of losing funds, a "tacking on" process ensued, culminating in an administrative structure that had no logical order or hierarchy and no clear relationships were established between and among differing jurisdictions. Due to this lack of hierarchy, there is little evidence of coordination among the divisions, offices, and sub-agencies conducting the various programs and even among those involved in similar or related projects. In some cases the directors of the programs have little or no knowledge of other programs being conducted in the name of compensatory education.

It can be seen that the extent of Hawaii's overall compensatory efforts is impressive. Yet the question remains whether these fragmented and largely uncoordinated administrative structures are producing the results that a more centralized and coordinated organization can produce.

Administrative Implications

In order to establish a logical order or hierarchy in the administrative structure, three alternatives are proposed:

1. The Department may centralize administration of

compensatory programs under a single office, responsible for the total coordination of the entire effort within its jurisdiction. The Governor may designate a non-educational agency, such as the Office of Economic Opportunity or State Commission on Manpower and Full Employment, to coordinate programs sponsored by agencies other than the Department of Education. This would then require coordination of two rather than a multitude of offices.

2. To attain the objective of a coordinated effort, a single agency should assume the duties and authority of compensatory programs. The authority should be vested in an office independent of sponsoring agencies, essentially to avoid internal conflicts. This too is an executive function that can be performed by the Governor.

3. The Department may be designated as the responsible agency for the administration of compensatory education programs. Consistent with the primary mission of the Department, compensatory education may be retained as an integral part of the total public educational system.

Programs

Analysis

Upon reviewing the considerable number of compensatory education efforts of the Department, there appears to be a multitude of projects. Detailed descriptions are reported in Chapter IV which indicate a wide variety of offerings. Programs range from pre-school projects to work-study programs designed to reach potential school dropouts. Services include tutoring, counseling and guidance, libraries, health and food. Subsidies are also provided for field trips, supplies and equipment, and in-service training.

Further investigation reveals a considerable amount of replication and duplication. Projects are approved by each respective director, independently adhering to the requirements set forth in each act. This practice leads to the development of similar program offerings. The essential ingredients that make for a unified, coordinated, and well-directed effort that could be identified as an integrated program are missing. What appears is a multitude of projects loosely related to each other.

Reading and language projects seem to dominate. Summaries of Title I ESEA projects indicate the prevalence of projects designed around the language arts theme.[3] Act 4 programs also emphasize reading and language development. These efforts are in addition to the State's commitment to language arts. Serious reservations are noted in many of the project descriptions which profess to improve language development through the practices of hiring classroom assistants. The employment of assistants does not insure or define an operational program.

A recent Department publication is helpful in defining the term program. Certain essential characteristics are inherent in a program:

> Being parts of a system, programs are in effect sub-systems and have many of the characteristics of systems. A program must display an overall unity, otherwise it probably ought to be more than one program. This unity is manifested in a specific approach or specifically related kinds of approaches to common problems of a definable, and, by at least one criterion, generally homogeneous population. A necessary characteristic is that the entire program have a common goal and common objectives. Finally it should be pointed out that there are different orders of programs. In effect there is a natural hierarchical ordering of programs. The ordering is from the general to the specific and a taxonomy can be drawn to illustrate the relationships. At some arbitrary points along the branches of the taxonomy we change our terminology and speak of courses rather than programs.[4]

It would be somewhat misleading to apply the term "program" to cover the loose aggregate of services, activities, curricular and organizational innovations, facilities, etc., that appear as individual "projects" in the schools. It would also be misleading to accept as truly compensatory all activities and services designated as compensatory by the school itself. However, they are programs in the sense that they have the same objectives (whether explicit or implicit), they are aimed at similar population targets, and they have the same funding source. And in the absence of accurate information, we must accept as compensatory all activities and services intended for this population whether they actually reached the children or not. In this sense we may speak of the Title I program, the Act 4 program, and so on. All these programs (which are really sub-programs) make up the State's compensatory education program.

Most frequently absent are clearly stated program goals and objectives--long-range, intermediate, and immediate--which stem from an identified problem of educating the disadvantaged, and goals which are compatible to the total educational aims of the State. The academic, personal, and social deficiencies of the deprived are noted in project proposals, but the specific character, the quality and nature of the deficiencies are not identified. There is a general tacit understanding of what the problems are, but a precise definition or specific goals or objectives that can unify the State's efforts are frequently absent.

A review of twenty-three Title I project proposals submitted in 1966 reveals that goals are stated in "unarguable generalities":

(1) To improve classroom performance in reading beyond usual expectations. (2) To improve classroom performance in other skill areas beyond the usual expectations. (3) To improve children's verbal functioning. (4) To improve performance as measured by standardized achievement tests. (5) To enlarge children's horizons and raise their aspirational level. Worthy as these goals sound, their imprecision makes a program of action difficult to mount, and measurement of accomplishment even more difficult.[5]

In analyzing the various programs and the steps in their implementation, it becomes apparent that not only is the sequential order of planning not being followed, but certain essential steps are missing. In fact, in many cases, the order seems to have been reversed: funds are allocated first and then programs are tailored to conform to the size of the allocations. This is particularly true of P.L. 89-10 Title I projects for project proposals are submitted for approval based upon the allocations received for any given fiscal year.

There is also little evidence that planning includes consideration of alternative solutions to the problems and their effectiveness in relation to cost. Again in the case of Title I projects, it might be assumed that the school staff did consider alternatives, discarded those deemed less effective and submitted their choices in the form of their project proposal. If such consideration occurs at the district and state levels, it appears to be a choice as to which schools submitted the most thoughtful and complete proposal. There is scant evidence of disability studies of the disadvantaged in some depth before alternative programs are proposed. While without doubt the projects have been carried out with the noblest intentions and the greatest enthusiasm and in some cases have resulted in significant changes in school programs and the achievement of deprived children, the validity of these programs cannot be supported in the kinds of evaluative data that have been derived. Subjectivity, ambiguity, and frequently a total lack of relationship to stated goals of the program characterize the evaluation data that were analyzed.

The Department is cognizant of the need for better evaluation of its compensatory education efforts. One evidence of this awareness is the Statewide Evaluation seminar for its Title I program which was held October 3-6, 1966, and for which national and local specialists in evaluation and measurement were engaged. Discussions were held on the scientific method, problem formulation, research design, methods of analysis, and intelligence measures, and case studies in evaluation conducted of actual projects in operation. As a following, schools submitting proposals were instructed in the summer of 1967 to conduct workshops to formulate their evaluation designs. The efficacy of these designs is yet to be demonstrated.

Evaluation forms employed are generally rating scales emphasizing external or peripheral features: To what degree does the project provide for comprehensiveness, balance, coordination, flexibility, universality? Or the forms ask for responses to such items as student reactions to the project, the outstanding features of the services provided, or they ask for suggestions for improving the services. Rarely do evaluations focus on student outcomes in terms of altered achievement, attitudes, or behavior. If they do, the responses are too general to be taken as valid measures of changes. Such comments as "students gained a 'tremendous amount of knowledge'" or "the over-all scope of the program appears very successful; children's responses developed and the children appeared much happier" can hardly be taken seriously as measures of student gains. One school reported "seemingly significant improvement" shown at all grade levels, although no formal pre- and post-test correlation studies were made.[6]

Project proposals being submitted do not generally require a researchable hypothesis. Void of a testable hypothesis and often without a theoretical base, the outcomes of these projects contribute little to the necessary answers fundamental to compensatory programs.

Conclusions

1. The need for a state plan for Compensatory Education is clearly established.

   Even a cursory review of the compensatory education efforts of the Department readily shows that there is lacking an overall, unified plan which provides a theoretical framework, a direction, and a focus for the numerous activities under way in the schools. State planning, coordination, and control are primarily to fulfill funding requirements. The essential ingredients for a well-directed, well-coordinated effort identifiable as a coherent department program must be formulated.

2. Goals and objectives of compensatory education programs need specificity and be compatible with the aims of the Department.

   The analysis of goals and objectives revealed the need for clear and concise statements. The operational program is dependent upon clearly defined goals, and program assessment cannot be effectively conducted without specific objectives.

3. Evaluative efforts must result in valid and reliable data in measuring program outcomes.

   The necessary precision in measuring program outcomes is lacking in our evaluative efforts. Adequate practices require a precise description of the proposal, specific conditions described, and the population clearly identified. Present evaluation forms employed, especially for federal programs, are general rating scales that are not measurable in terms of expected outcomes.

4. Effectiveness of compensatory programs can be increased by inclusion of scientific or research design.

   The effectiveness of the compensatory programs can largely be attributed to programs not incorporating the elements of a scientific method of investigation. These elements such as definition of the problem, making tentative explanations or hypothesis as to the possible solutions, selecting a likely hypothesis, and testing the hypothesis by an experimental design, have been conspicuous by their absence in almost all of the project proposals that have been reviewed. Therefore, the results derived from the projects have added very little to the general knowledge of initiating effective programs for the educationally deprived.

Program Implications

In order to develop a comprehensive state plan for Compensatory Education, which clearly establishes the goals and objectives in terms that are compatible with educational aims of the Department, the following alternatives are presented as probable approaches to program planning and development:

1. Secure the services of a highly competent consultant of a national stature to plan and develop a state plan for compensatory education. The advantage of objectivity is emphasized in this proposed alternative and to capitalize on current research data.

2. Assign this responsibility to the Office of Instructional Services to integrate the Compensatory Education Program to the general education program. The initial focus should be to make explicit general education, then compensating deficiencies can be ascertained.

3. Investigate the probable involvement of the Hawaii Curriculum Center which has curriculum development as one of its primary missions. This function of planning and developing a program for compensatory education is related to present efforts in language development in educationally deprived communities.

4. Initiate this effort as part of the Department's involvement with PPBS. This is a program planning function, and can be readily initiated into a Planning, Programming, Budgeting System.

5. Initiate an effort to teach all teachers, principals and other administrators proper research design and methods of

data collection. The alternative can be received as providing some immediate and in upgrading present experimental programs in compensatory education.

Funding

Analysis

Two practices are noted. A review of funding practices reveals that compensatory funds require separate accountability as well as observance of certain restrictions on how they can be used. For example, P.L. 89-10 Title I funds require separate accountability from Act 4 (SLH 1965) funds. Act 4 programs are directed to children who reside on Hawaiian Home Lands whereas Title I funds are directed to the culturally deprived.

The second practice concerns the allocation of Title I, P.L. 89-10 funds, which is by far the largest single source of funds for compensatory programs and thus has the widest coverage and potential impact. According to the Title I guidelines, the following procedure is used to allocate funds to the schools: for each school in the State, the number of children from families with less than $2,000 income (according to the 1960 Census) and the number of children from families receiving welfare aid in 1966 were determined. The schools were then ranked by the ratio of these children to the total school enrollment. An average concentration for the State was obtained (8.874 percent). Schools with a low income population in excess of the average were then declared eligible for Title I funds. To ensure greater concentration of funds on those schools with the highest incidence of poverty, the districts were allowed the discretion of eliminating eligible schools.[7]

This method resulted in allocations to 81 schools in fiscal year 1967-68, distributed among the seven districts as shown in Appendix B.

When these allocations are examined in the light of educational needs, a number of questions arise.

First, if school mean reading achievement scores are taken as an index of educational deprivation, the greatest need appears in geographically remote schools and in schools serving areas with a high density of public housing. For example, mean scores for Pope Elementary (Waimanalo) and Nanaikapono (Nanakuli) are considerably lower than for Kaewai and Fern, both in Honolulu. (Nineteen percentile and 22 percentile, respectively as against 42 percentile for the two city schools.) Dole Intermediate where 30 percent of the pupils come from low-cost housing, has a 39 percentile mean as against 54 percentile for Washington Intermediate. All six schools qualified for Title I funds.

The geographic dimensions of educational deprivation in Hawaii can best be seen in a recent rank order listing of lowest achieving schools in the State. The list was compiled by the Department on the results of the 1967 testing in reading, writing, and listening skills.[8] Of the 17 schools listed, 14 are rural schools. The other are city schools serving the same public housing areas.

Some interesting comparisons can be based on the foregoing data. Windward District, for example, had 2 schools on the list of lowest scoring schools; its Title I funds were spread over 10 schools. Hawaii had 3 such schools; its funds went to 16 schools. Honolulu had 3 schools on the list, all in the same area; its allotment went to 21 schools.

Other interesting comparisons can be drawn from existing data. In Honolulu District a total of 3,516 students in 21 schools qualified for Title I aid as against 3,357 students in 60 schools in all the other districts of the State combined.[9] In other words, the sheer weight of numbers in Honolulu alone can ensure the concentration of funds thereunder the present method of allocation.

The other aspect of educational deprivation involves schools in areas with a high concentration of low-cost housing. The city schools listed as lowest achieving are located in the area ranked as most deprived in a study done in 1966 by the Honolulu Council of Social Agencies. It is the most extensive study of social characteristics of communities completed to date. It ranked 13 Oahu communities according to selected indicators of economic status, education, health, crime, juvenile delinquency, welfare aid, and schools. Kalihi-Palama topped the list of thirteen, followed closely by Waianae, Waimanalo, and Kalihi-Fort Shafter. (See Table 1, p. 9)

Conclusions

1. Central accounting and pooling of allocations is necessary for program effectiveness.

   As previously stated, the various funds for compensatory education programs are maintained separately and allocated separately instead of being pooled into a common fund and allocated to the various programs on the basis of funding qualifications. The order of allocation does not seem to recognize that State funds might be conserved for the last because of the nonlapsing provisions and the broad lump-sum flexibility in the use of such funds.[10] It is true that some of the extramural funds must be coordinated with other governmental agencies such as the Department of Hawaiian Home Lands for Act 4 funds and the Hawaii Office of Economic Opportunity for Economic Opportunity funds. It is also true that most of these funds require separate accounting as well as observance of certain restrictions on how they are to be used. However, it would seem that both problems of coordination and accountability can still be effectively maintained within the concept of centralized and integrated funding.

2. The current method of allocating P.L. 89-10 Title I funds prohibits concentration of funds for desired impact.

   The point to be made is that the practice of pro-rating available funds on a formula basis to ensure that every qualifying school gets its "fair share" has severe limitations in that it does not always ensure that funds will be applied where the need for improvement is greatest or that enough will be applied. For many of the 81 schools receiving their pro-rated shares for 1968 (see Appendix B) the allotment simply is not enough to make a significant improvement. Lahainaluna High on Maui, for instance, was allocated $6,685; the school was able to hire one secondary teacher. Hanalei Elementary on Kauai was allocated $1,698, which bought the part-time services of a pre-kindergarten teacher. August Ahrens in the Leeward District received $13,759, which hired a kindergarten teacher and an aide. Too often the assistance available with pro-rated funds is too superficial to make a fundamental difference. Somewhat ironical in this context is the advice contained in the state guidelines for the Title I program:

   > In order to focus aid on the children who are most deprived educationally, it is necessary to invest substantial amounts of money per pupil and to concentrate a variety of services on a limited number of children. Within the limits of the funds available, it is then necessary to concentrate upon the children with the greatest need.[11]

Implications

The following alternatives are offered to bring about significant changes in schools with large concentrations of disadvantaged students:

1. The Department may allot funds for various compensatory education programs to the various districts but it should insist that the funds be concentrated in a school or a very limited number of critical area schools. State staff, district staff, and the principal of the school could jointly formulate a scientific research design for the compensatory education effort for that particular district. Concentration of funds in one or a limited number of schools within the districts may generate data that will be useful in designing a compensatory education program for the district.

2. After reorganizing the various compensatory education efforts within the Department of Education, the Department may wish to formulate and design compensatory education programs which can be field tested in critical area schools. Concentration of funds in a limited number of selected rural critical area schools could generate new knowledge which will provide data necessary for improving the compensatory education effort of the State. Central collection of data and dissemination of findings from the central office to the districts and schools should provide all schools with needed data to improve their own efforts in compensatory education.

Other Pertinent Conclusions

1. Busing students from "limited environment communities" to advantaged schools in Hawaii do not offer conclusive solutions to the problem of equating education opportunities.

   The single dimension of "busing" is not sufficient to cope with the problems of educating the culturally deprived. Multiple variables need to be considered, and current research does not lend support to this practice.

2. Method of identifying cultural deprivation should be reviewed.

   Two methods were reviewed in the report, (1) Priority ranking of communities by social characteristics (method of the Honolulu Council of Social Agencies) and (2) Ranking by the percentage of low-income families (method of the Department of Education). The complexity of social and environmental factors that affect behavior necessitates the consideration of multiple variables. Single determinant approach, such as income, has severe limitations.

3. The use of standardized tests to identify and measure academic progress is a major unresolved issue.

   To apply an instrument to a segment of population whose characteristics are markedly different, and to draw conclusions from the results is a practice that is highly controversial. This is especially true in measuring the learning potential and achievement of culturally deprived for causation is unresolved, but results indicate poor academic performance. Hawaii's school population should be studied in depth in considering the factors that are peculiar and significant to this State.

4. Importance of the teacher as the single significant factor has been clearly established.

The teacher is still the single most critical factor in the classroom. Even the most skillfully devised and up-to-date curriculum depends for its success on the effectiveness of the classroom teacher, who must have at her command not only knowledge and instruction know-how, but also the interest, sensitivity, insights, and attitudes of respect for and expectations of the children firmly held. That this fact is appreciated is evident in the provisions made for teacher orientation and training in many of the project proposals and program descriptions that were examined. It becomes apparent that not enough is being done to prepare teachers, both in-service and pre-service, to cope effectively with the special problems of the deprived. This is especially true of the secondary programs of remediation and motivation, which show little evidence of providing teachers with appropriate training.

Summary and Major Conclusions

The total departmental effort over the past few years in compensatory education has reached significant proportions. Approximately 4 percent of the Department's total revenues is being expended in this area. (See Appendix A) Numerous programs have been established and new ones are being added. A variety of approaches have been tried. The schools are sensitive as never before to the needs of the deprived. Yet, at present, from an educational standpoint, the only fact firmly established is the problem: there is a relatively high incidence of poor achievement and failures among disadvantaged children. There is little definitively known about the causes of these failures. There is also little concrete data on the kinds of programs that are successful under particular kinds of conditions for particular kinds of problems in particular kinds of children.

For the observer viewing the Department's program from the top, the picture is a confusing one of many uncoordinated and fragmented attacks on what is acknowledged a common problem. At the state level there are no identifiable goals and objectives for the program. There are many administrative structures which do not cohere or articulate smoothly. Beyond controls to meet funding requirements, there are no centralized planning, programming, and budgeting. There is little curriculum direction and design. There is no theoretical or conceptual framework nor pragmatic models to guide schools in the structuring of their individual programs. There is no systematic evaluation of programs, and no systematic collection of data on practices that have proven successful. Nor are there guidelines for the selection and training of teachers and the staffing of schools. At the school level, there is a proliferating array of activities, practices, and services whose focus and direction are not always clear. The schools have almost complete autonomy in what is carried out in the name of compensatory education.

On the positive side, there are encouraging elements. The needs of these children are recognized if not fully understood. For the first time the Department is making a serious, large-scale attempt to equalize opportunities, and for the first time it has the means at its disposal to do so. Parental and community awareness of their share of responsibility for the education of these children is affecting a degree of cooperation and involvement unknown before. The time will never be better for the Department to undertake a frank appraisal of the strengths and weaknesses in its present organization and programs and, on the basis of its appraisal, move to make schools fully responsive to the educational needs and potentials of all children.

Some immediate challenges for the Department are apparent. The most obvious appear to be along the lines briefly outlined below:

1. The Department investigates the feasibility of a single administrative structure for compensatory education, responsible for total program coordination.
2. Development of long-range, intermediate, and short-range plans for compensatory education, articulated with program goals (e.g., in English, mathematics, etc.) and with overall departmental goals and objectives for public education; articulated, furthermore, with all other agencies, public and private, concerned with the education of the disadvantaged.
3. Development of a theoretical base and conceptual framework to establish a clear rationale for the program, to define uniformly the target populations, to discover their characteristics, deficiencies, strengths, their unique value systems, factors of motivation, attitudes, aspirations, behavioral patterns, environmental influences, and other factors that may play an important role in the social and educational development of the deprived.
4. Review of funding procedures to ensure the most efficient use of compensatory funds.
5. Development of teacher training programs, both pre-service and in-service. The approach should coordinate all the available resources including but not limiting to the teacher corps program, Department's summer institutes, NDEA institutes, the youth development center's training programs and the regular teacher training programs.

FOOTNOTES

Chapter I

1. See Appendix D.

2. Testimony of Akira Sakima, House of Representative from the 11th District regarding Resolution No. 184 submitted to the House Education Committee (1967), Fourth State Legislature, states:

> It should be stated at the onset that the quest for equal educational opportunity for all the Hawaiian citizenry at certain schools has been difficult to attain. Certain educational practitioners attribute this inherent difficulty to the high concentration of low-income families in a specific district.
>
> In a public hearing held by the Housing and Consumer Protection Committee, educational officials cohesively illustrated a positive relationship of school maladjustments and high concentration of "low-income families." Among the pronounced areas of school maladjustments were: (1) high incidences of class cutting, truancy, and socio-maladjustments; (2) academic inhibition, especially in verbal skills; and (3) health and nutritional related problems.

3. See Appendix D.

4. See Chapter III (Review of the Literature) section entitled "Busing."

The U.S. News and World Report December 25, 1967, p. 43, also views "busing" as:

> "Big-city schools of this country are facing a dilemma on how to improve the education of negro children. Busing pupils is not achieving integration in cities and tests indicate it is not bringing much improvement, if any, in educational accomplishments of the negroes.

5. The mandates emerging from the Fourth Legislature dealing with compensatory education include the following:

   a. D.O.E. shall develop, initiate, and evaluate programs designed to give equal educational opportunity to children in rural schools or in schools of limited environmental communities or to children who are socially, economically, or culturally deprived. Legislative Conference Committee Report No. 2, HB 199, p. 5.

   b. D.O.E. to explore programs for dropouts, and move boldly in this area. C.C. R. No. 2, HB 2, Fourth State Legislature, 1967, p. 8.

   c. Review of administrative practices and programs of all schools located in limited environment communities. Investigate all facets of educational endeavors that would insure equal opportunities for students who attend schools in limited environment communities. HR 274, (See Appendix F) Fourth State Legislature, 1967.

6. House Resolution No. 274, adopted during the Fourth Legislature (1967), State of Hawaii.

7. Edmund Gordon and Doxey Wilkerson, Compensatory Education for the Disadvantaged (New York: College Entrance Examination Board, 1966), foreword.

8. John C. Gowan and George D. Demos, The Disadvantaged and Potential Dropout (Springfield: Charles C. Thomas, 1966), p. 9.

9. U.S. Office of Education, "Regulations Pursuant to Title I, II, and III of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, Part 116, Subpart A," Federal Register, XXXII, No. 27, pt. 2, February 9, 1967, 2742.

Chapter II

1. Edmund W. Gordon and Doxey A. Wilkerson, Compensatory Education for the Disadvantaged Programs and Practices: Preschool Through College (New York: College Entrance Examination Board,1966), p. 9.

   An example of a private foundation's work is that of the Ford Foundation and its part in the Great Cities Program.

2. Frank Riessman, The Culturally Deprived Child (New York: Harper and Sons, 1962), p. 2.

3. Benjamin Bloom, Allison Davis, and Robert Hess, Compensatory Education for Cultural Deprivation (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1965), p. 4.

4. See Walter Crewson, Identification of the Educational Disadvantaged (New York: State University of New York, Education Department, 1965), p. 5.

5. For example, see the following:

   a. William G. Savard and Charles T. Araki, The Relationship of Socio-Economic Background to Students Achievement in the Public High Schools of the State of Hawaii (Honolulu: Department of Education, Office of Research, Statistics and Data Processing, June 2, 1965), pp. 1-21.

   b. Honolulu Council of Social Agencies, A Study of the Social Characteristics of 13 Oahu Communities (1966), pp. 1-35.

   c. Hawaii, Honolulu Commission on Children and Youth, Children and Youth in Low-Income (Low-Rent) Housing Projects (Honolulu, 1959), pp. 1-89.

6. See Honolulu Council of Social Agencies, pp. 1-35.

7. Ibid., p. 33.

8. See Hawaii, Department of Education, Title I, P.L. 89-10, Guidelines for Fiscal Year 1968 (Honolulu: Department of Education, Office of Federal Programs, 1967), pp. 3-4.

9. See Table 1, page 4.

Chapter III

1. Paul A. Witty, "The Educability of Undereducated Americans," in The Educationally Retarded and Disadvantaged, ed. by Paul A. Witty (Chicago: National Society for the Study of Education, 1967), p. 67. This is the Sixty-Sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. The purpose of this volume as stated in the Introduction "is to present helpful materials relating to two large groups ('educationally retarded' and 'disadvantaged') now known to need programs--groups which most intelligent citizens readily identify. The programs are neither representative nor are they perfect. They are offered not as models but as indications of some of the ways that concerned and competent individuals have attacked the problems."

2. Edmund W. Gordon and Doxey A. Wilkerson, Compensatory Education for the Disadvantaged (New York: College Entrance Examination Board, 1966), foreword. The foreword of this volume jointly signed by Richard Pearson, President of the College Entrance Examination Board, and Richard L. Plaut, President of the National Scholarship Service and Fund for Negro Students, states that the two organizations joined to publish "a compendium, analysis, and evaluation of compensatory education across the nation."

   Gordon and Wilkerson state that children from disadvantaged backgrounds in comparison with middle-class children:

   a. "are less able to make use of standard English in representing and interpreting their feelings, their experiences and the objects in their environment,"

   b. "tend to depend more on real life encounters than on symbolic experience in developing ideas and skills,"

   c. "are noted . . . to demonstrate perceptual styles and perceptual habits which are either inadequate or irrelevant to the demands of academic efficiency,"

   d. "tend . . . to show a marked lack of involvement with, attention to, and concentration on their academic experience,"

   e. "are less highly motivated and have lower aspirations for academic and vocational achievement."

3. A. Harry Passow and David L. Elliott, "The Disadvantaged in Depressed Areas," in The Educationally Retarded and Disadvantaged, p. 28.

4. Gordon and Wilkerson, p. 179.

5. West Hartford Public Schools, "West Hartford Formula," (West Hartford, Conn., n.d.), p. 1.

6. U.S., Commission on Civil Rights, Racial Isolation in the Public Schools (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1967), Vol. 1, pp.56-57.

7. Ibid., p. 149.

8. Bernard Bard, "Brooklyn's Bus to Equality," Saturday Review, February 18, 1967, pp. 78-79.

9. U.S., Office of Economic Opportunity, Community Action Programs, Urban-Suburban School Mixing: A Feasibility Study; West Hartford Summer School, 1966, pp. 10-19, 71-84. This feasibility study, of which the 1966 West Hartford Summer School was the first stage, is to be a two-year experiment. It is focused upon the question, "What will be the effects of mixing on both urban and suburban participants?"

10. See U.S. Office of Economic Opportunity, Community Action Programs, Urban-Suburban School Mixing, and Harold A. Jonsson, "Maternal, Teacher, and Pupil Attitudes toward Busing, Integration, and Related Issues in Berkeley Elementary Schools," submitted to the Berkeley Unified School District, 1966.

11. U. S. Civil Rights Commission, p. 181.

12. Merrill Folsom, "Busing Criticized in White Plains," The New York Times, November 10, 1967, p. 17.

13. U.S., Office of Education, Digest of Educational Statistics, 1966 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1966), p. 36.

14. U. S. Civil Rights Commission, pp. 129, 131, 151-153.

15. Joseph Alsop, "Good News, for Once!", Washington Post, May 15, 1967. This is the first of four articles by the United Federation of Teachers of New York City in support of the More Effective Schools Program. The other articles included in the package are "More Very Good News," "Truly Wonderful School News," and "Damn Bad News."

16. U. S. Civil Rights Commission, p. 153.

17. Joseph Alsop, "Good News, for Once!".

18. U. S. Civil Rights Commission, pp. 128-137.

19. Leonard Buder, "Good Marks for Integration," The New York Times, October 22, 1967, p. 139.

20. Merrill Folsom, "Busing Criticized in White Plains."

21. "Busing Gets a Boost," Saturday Review, November 18, 1967, p. 85.

22. "Busing Has Little Effect in Frisco," Education News, 1(2), November 13, 1967, p. 4.

23. Robert Schwarz, Thomas Pettigrew, and Marshall Smith, "Fake Panaceas for Ghetto Education: A Reply to Joseph Alsop," Phi Delta Kappan, 49(3), November 1967, p. 150.

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30. James Olsen, "Challenge of the Poor to the Schools," Phi Delta Kappan 47(2) (October, 1965), p. 83.

31. Connecticut, Department of Education, Anti-Poverty and Education (Hartford: Connecticut State Department of Education, 1966), pp. 7-8.

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33. See Olsen, p. 82, and Muriel Crosby, "Elementary-School Programs for the Education of the Disadvantaged," The Educationally Retarded, p. 172.

34. Walter B. Barbe, "Identification and Diagnosis of the Needs of the Educationally Retarded and Disadvantaged," in The Educationally Retarded, p. 117.

35. Melvin Tumin, "Teaching in America," Saturday Review, October 21, 1967, p. 78.

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39. Glenn Nimnicht and others, "First Year Report of a Project in Nursery School Education for Environmentally Deprived Spanish-American Children," Research in Education, (1) (January 1967), pp. 8-9.

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41. Dorsey Baynham, "The Great Cities Projects," Journal of the National Education Association, 52(4) (April, 1963), pp. 17-20. Information from Gordon and Wilkerson has been added to this paragraph. See pp. 9-10, and 115.

42. Helen K. Mackintosh, Lillian Gore and Gertrude M. Lewis, Educating Disadvantaged Children in the Primary Years (Washington: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1965), pp. 31-32.

43. Philip Meranto, The Politics of Federal Aid to Education in 1965: A Study in Political Innovation (Syracuse: Syracuse University Press, 1967), p. 19. Additional information in this paragraph is from Smiley's "Objectives of Educational Programs for the Educationally Retarded and the Disadvantaged" listed below. See pp. 128-130.

44. Gordon and Wilkerson, p. 9.

45. Marjorie B. Smiley, "Objectives of Educational Programs, for the Educationally Retarded and the Disadvantaged," in The Educationally Retarded, p. 121.

46. These programs are described in the following sources: Gordon and Wilkerson, and U. S. Commission on Civil Rights, Racial Isolation in the Public Schools, v. 1 (Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967).

47. Gordon and Wilkerson, p. 54.

48. *Ibid.*, pp. 54-55.

49. Vernon Haubrich, "The Culturally Different: New Context for Teacher Education," The Journal of Teacher Education, 14 (June, 1963), pp. 165-167. The Hunter College teacher training program in the junior high schools of New York City recruited volunteers from among the teacher trainees in that institution. Most of the persons who volunteered wanted to engage in a significant social undertaking and had a strong sense of idealism. The response was less than 10 per cent of those eligible. The schools selected were the so-called "difficult" ones in the disadvantaged areas of the city.

The student teaching semester was divided into three parts. The first part, which was from two to three weeks in length, was spent in orientation, observation and adjustment to the new surroundings. During the second part, which was about three weeks in duration, the student teacher was gradually inducted into the actual teaching situation, doing such things as lesson planning, unit planning and evaluation. He also had his first actual experience in front of the class, and he assumed a degree of responsibility for two classes during the morning. In the third phase, the student teacher assumed control and responsibility of two classes during the morning period. The cooperating teacher was always on hand, ready and willing to help.

Besides this classroom experience, the student also had the following supplemental experiences:

a. Wide contact with and discussion of the community agencies serving the adults and youths in the neighborhood.

b. Weekly and bi-weekly conferences with the supervisor from the college. It was also possible to call in guidance counselors, remedial reading specialists, assistant principals, attendance officers, and subject matter personnel during these conferences to resolve specific points at issue.

c. Introduction to the various offices in the school which provides essential services to the teacher and the children.

d. A high degree of cooperation between the personnel of the school where the student teacher was assigned and the personnel from the college.

The student teachers who successfully completed their training were offered positions in the schools where they trained. Those who asked for a transfer at the end of the program were assigned to other schools without prejudice. Of the 32 who completed their training, 24 elected to remain in the "difficult schools" as regular teachers.

50. Ibid., p. 167.

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52. Joseph O. Loretan and Shelley Umans, Teaching the Disadvantaged (New York: Columbia University Teachers College Press, 1966), p. 27.

53. Gordon and Wilkerson, pp. 57 and 59.

54. Ibid., p. 59.

55. Fred M. Hechinger, "Soviet Education System at the Crossroads," The New York Times, October 5, 1967, p. 18.

56. Crosby, p. 174.

57. Helen K. Mackintosh and Gertrude M. Lewis, "Headstart for Children in Slums," American Education 1(1) (December 1964-January 1965), p. 31.

58. Gordon and Wilkerson, p. 76.

59. Ibid., pp. 77-79.

60. Ibid., pp. 79-80.

61. Ibid., p. 81.

62. Ibid., pp. 59-61.

63. Ibid., pp. 60, 265-266.

64. Ibid., pp. 62-64.

65. Walter B. Barbe and Edward C. Frierson, "Analysis of Topics in Selected Comprehensive Bibliographies," in The Educationally Retarded, pp. 368-369.

66. Gordon and Wilkerson, p. 71.

67. Barbe and Frierson, p. 369.

68. Gordon and Wilkerson, p. 35.

69. Information in this section is from two sources: Gordon and Wilkerson, p. 37, and Barbe and Frierson, pp. 369-370.

70. Gordon and Wilkerson, pp. 96-104.

71. Ibid., pp. 102-103.

72. U.S., Office of Economic Opportunity, Community Action Program, Upward Bound (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1966), pp. 1 and 5.

73. Gordon and Wilkerson, p. 103.

74. Barbe and Frierson, p. 368.

75. Frederick Shaw, "Educating Culturally Deprived Youth in Urban Centers," Phi Delta Kappan, 45(2) (November, 1963), p. 93.

76. Urie Bronfenbrenner, "The Split-Level American Family," Saturday Review, October 7, 1967, p. 65.

77. Gordon and Wilkerson, p. 105.

78. Ibid., pp. 106-144.

79. Catherine Brunner, "Preschool Experiences for the Disadvantaged," in The Educationally Retarded, pp. 146-153.

80. Gordon and Wilkerson, pp. 48-49.

81. Brunner, pp. 166-167.

82. Gordon and Wilkerson, p. 160.

83. U.S. Civil Rights Commission, pp. 139-140.

84. Gordon and Wilkerson, p. 40.

85. Daniel Schreiber, "The School Dropout," in The Educationally Retarded, p. 236.

86. S. M. Miller, "Dropouts--A Political Problem," in The School Dropout, ed. by Daniel Schreiber (Washington: National Education Association, 1964), pp. 13-18.

87. Ibid., pp. 22-24.

88. Gordon and Wilkerson, pp. 161-164.

89. Selected items quoted from "The Big Gun on Poverty" by Edwin L. Dale, Jr., August 7, 1965, New Republic in: Stanley M. Elem, "Is Compensatory Education Only Palliative?", Phi Delta Kappan, 47(2) (October, 1965), pp. 65-66.

90. Gordon and Wilkerson, pp. 44-45.

91. Ibid., p. 86.

92. "MES and the New UFT Contract," Phi Delta Kappan, 49(3) (November, 1967), p. 149.

93. Gordon and Wilkerson, pp. 87-95.

94. Ibid., pp. 116-200.

95. Clyde M. Campbell, "Community Programs and Adult Education," in The Educationally Retarded, pp. 265-267.

96. U. S. Civil Rights Commission, pp. 140-150.

97. *Ibid*., pp. 138-139.

98. James S. Coleman and Others, *Equality of Educational Opportunity* (Washington: U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1966), pp. 330-331.

99. U. S. Civil Rights Commission, pp. 128-137.

100. *Ibid*., pp. 141-142.

101. *Ibid*., pp. 142-143.

102. *Ibid*., pp. 143-145.

103. New York City, Board of Education, *Desegregating the Public Schools of New York City* (New York: New York City, Board of Education, 1964), pp. 4 and 6.

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108. Hanson W. Baldwin, "Men Once Rejected for Low Aptitudes Adapt to Military," *The New York Times*, November 19, 1967, pp. 1, 24.

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117. U. S. Civil Rights Commission, p. 163.

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119. *Ibid*., p. 165.

120. *Ibid*., pp. 165-166.

121. *Ibid*., p. 166.

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Chapter IV

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3. Hawaii, Department of Education, Office of Instructional Services, *Title I, P.L. 89-10, Summaries of Approved Projects for Fiscal Year 1968* (1967-68 School Year), (Honolulu, 1967).

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APPENDIX A

ESTIMATED EXPENDITURES FOR COMPENSATORY EDUCATION IN THE STATE OF HAWAII SCHOOL YEARS 1965-68

Funds	Actual 1965-66	Actual 1966-67	Estimated 1967-68	Total Expenditures for 3 Years
Special Motivation (Act 125, SLH 1961)[a]	$ 47,360	$ 47,040	$ 48,310	$ 142,710
Vocational Education of 1963 (Work-Study, P.L. 88-210)			77,955	77,955
Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 (P.L. 88-452)				
Neighborhood Youth Corps	557,529	425,940	382,597	1,366,066
Community Action Programs (CAP)	595,176	529,718	616,895	1,741,784
Elementary and Secondary Act of 1965, Title I (P.L. 89-10)	1,747,171	2,127,530	2,181,686	6,052,387
Hawaiian Homes Act 4, SLH 1965[a]	239,571	252,089	221,065	712,725
National Teacher Corps (Part B, Title V, Higher Education Act)		21,087	122,046	143,133
Demonstration Cities and Metropolitan Development Act of 1966 (P.L. 89-754)			99,000[b]	99,000
Progressive Neighborhoods Program Act 299 (SLH 1967)[a]				10,000
TOTAL	$ 3,186,807 ($81,245,212)[c]	$ 3,403,404 ($95,346,396)[c]	$ 3,749,554 ($95,346,396)[c]	$ 10,345,760 ($271,938,004)[c] (4%)

Source: Department of Education, Office of Business Services.

[a] State-sponsored programs.

[b] Requested for planning the educational program.

[c] Represents expenditures for on-going programs--instructional, personnel, equipment, etc. Does not include expenditures for capital improvement.

APPENDIX B

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
OFFICE OF INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAMS
TITLE I, P.L. 89-10

May 18, 1967

FISCAL YEAR 1968 SUB-ALLOCATIONS
HAWAII

District	% of State	Amount
Honolulu District	46.058	$ 833,606
Central Oahu	7.257	131,345
Leeward Oahu	10.182	184,284
Windward Oahu	10.182	184,284
Kauai District	3.913	70,822
Maui District	6.409	115,997
Hawaii District	15.999	289,567
State Programs		126,726
Anticipated Fiscal Year 1968 Allocations		$1,809,905

Source: Department of Education,
Office of Research.

STATE PROGRAMS

School	Amount
Diamond Head	$ 21,739
Hawaii State Hospital	3,876
Kaioli	5,224
Linekona	26,120
Pohukaina	32,693
Shriner's Hospital	4,213
Waimano Training School (c/o Department of Health)	19,043
Booth Memorial Home	3,876
Youth Correctional Facilities (Olomana)	9,942
TOTAL	$126,726

ALLOCATION FOR P.L. 89-10 PROJECTS

School	% of Eligible Children	1965-66 Enrollment	1965-66 Average Daily Absence (%)	1965-66 STEP Reading*	No. of Students in Program	% of District Allocation	Amount
HONOLULU DISTRICT							
Farrington High	14.50	2,779	7.37	35	315	8.78	$ 59,738
Kalakaua Intermediate	21.83	1,779	4.03	50	282	8.15	59,182
Dole Intermediate	27.20	1,254	11.74	39	425	7.19	52,202
McKinley High	14.35	2,344	7.37	49	200	6.54	47,501
Kalihi Kai	27.19	1,038	7.69	42	300	6.35	46,130
Kaiulani	29.41	740	8.68	39	152	6.02	43,706
Palolo	29.50	882	8.27	51	206	5.66	41,123
Kaewai	35.23	738	8.69	42	150	5.56	40,369
Washington Intermediate	16.40	1,598	5.20	54	93	5.50	39,912
Kaimuki High	10.32	2,328	7.22	54	195	5.33	34,830
Fern	34.25	701	6.74	42	185	5.20	37,786
Kaahumanu	20.87	877	6.86	64	160	3.91	28,376
Central Intermediate	24.38	721	11.22	42	100	3.72	27,012
Kalihi	20.67	815	7.31	42	122	3.34	24,284
Jarrett	13.99	1,078	5.17	65	120	3.22	23,522
Kauluwela Elementary	30.50	482	6.38	51	76	3.15	22,912
Lanakila	17.05	785	5.02	58	120	2.74	19,880
Puuhale	16.43	791	6.73	51	105	2.69	19,575

*Based on Mean Scores as follows: high schools -- 10; intermediate schools -- 8; elementary schools -- 6.

School	% of Eligible Children	1965-66 Enrollment	1965-66 Average Daily Absence (%)	1965-66 STEP Reading*	No. of Students in Program	% of District Allocation	Amount
HONOLULU DISTRICT (cont.)							
Linapuni	40.95	302	9.72	27	60	2.51	$ 18,211
Royal	17.19	627	6.55	58	80	2.25	16,390
Anuenue	24.43	447	5.51	66	70	2.09	13,661
Total		23,106			3,516	Less District Projects:	$833,606 108,070 $725,536
CENTRAL OAHU							
Aiea High	15.19	1,447	7.76	49	30	15.78	19,690
Halawa	16.08	617	7.84	30	50	14.21	17,734
Waialua High	15.63	972	6.61	32	48	13.82	17,245
Wahiawa Elementary	13.19	1,134	4.75	68	76	13.52	16,877
Haleiwa Elementary	10.20	1,321	7.33	51	78	12.64	15,776
Aiea Elementary	11.53	942	5.63	58	60	12.16	15,165
Aiea Intermediate	9.20	903	4.97	57	50	11.08	13,819
Waialua Elementary	8.98	1,321	7.33	51	40	6.76	8,439
Total		8,657			432	Less District Projects:	$131,345 6,600 $124,745

School	% of Eligible Children	1965-66 Enrollment	1965-66 Average Daily Absence (%)	1965-66 STEP Reading*	No. of Students in Program	% of District Allocation	Amount
LEEWARD OAHU DISTRICT							
Nanaikapono	24.20	2,009	11.18	22	134	24.18	$ 40,089
Waianae Elementary	17.59	1,883	9.43	35	40	17.63	29,242
Waianae High	14.76	1,681	14.66	23	360	15.90	26,372
Maili	13.93	863	8.99	27	120	13.91	23,075
Ahrens	10.72	1,306	5.72	42	50	10.71	13,759
Makaha	9.76	880	8.80	39	69	9.75	16,164
Waianae Intermediate	9.05	413	8.52	28	90	7.89	17,080
Total		9,035			863	Less District Projects:	$184,284 18,503 $165,781
WINDWARD OAHU DISTRICT							
Hauula	16.64	600	9.53	30	95	16.64	$ 30,006
Waiahole Elem. & Inter.	14.71	561	9.03	35	317	14.70	26,512
Kahuku High & Elem.	10.23	1,176	6.21	42	110	10.22	18,438
Pope	10.09	406	7.63	19	80	10.09	18,198
Castle High & Inter.	9.89	1,692	9.06	43	120	9.89	17,835
Kaaawa	8.96	224	6.11	35	82	8.95	16,148
Waimanalo Elem. & Inter.	8.29	877	8.41	39	105	8.28	14,944

School	% of Eligible Children	1965-66 Enrollment	1965-66 Average Daily Absence (%)	1965-66 STEP Reading*	No. of Students in Program	% of District Allocation	Amount
WINDWARD OAHU (cont.)							
Kahaluu	7.89	370	8.23	30	78	7.88	$ 14,221
Parker	7.89	1,346	5,69	51	75	7.88	14,221
Laie	5.41	465	4.16	35	55	5.41	9,761
Total		7,717			1,117	Less District Projects:	$184,284 4,000 $180,284
KAUAI DISTRICT							
Kapaa Elem.-Anahola	41.25	907	7.49	51	85	41.24	$ 25,939
Koloa	21.10	446	3.87	46	67	21.10	13,782
Kapaa High	18.71	864	4.21	43	66	18.70	13,216
Kalaheo	9.59	342	4.97	39	31	9.59	6,264
Waimea Elementary	6.95	304	4.17	51	31	6.95	4,542
Hanalei	2.40	59	5.30	27	10	2.39	1,698
Total		2,922			290	Less District Projects:	$70,822 --- $70,822

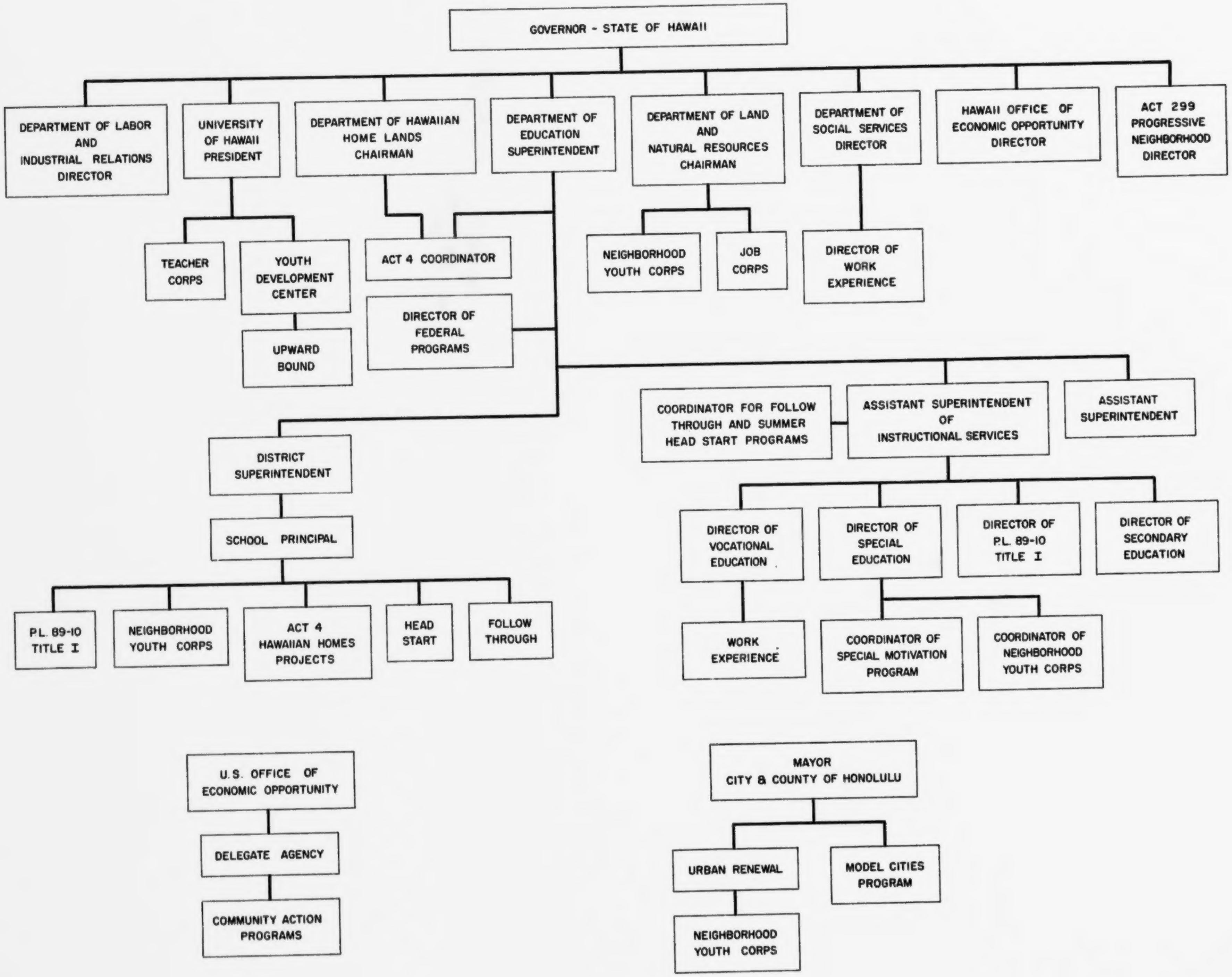
School	% of Eligible Children	1965-66 Enrollment	1965-66 Average Daily Absence (%)	1965-66 STEP Reading*	No. of Students in Program	% of District Allocation	Amount
MAUI DISTRICT							
Wailuku	14.70	895	5.09	56	82	14.69	$ 15,281
Kilohana Elem. & Inter.	10.22	153	9.43	19	180**	10.21	10,625
Kamehameha III	10.22	730	4.66	54	49	10.21	10,625
Maui High	9.07	617	4.06	43	50	9.07	9,431
Paia	7.92	332	5.50	27	36	7.92	8,238
Kula	7.35	325	3.97	42	36	7.34	7,640
Makawao	6.77	463	4.30	58	50**	6.77	7,043
Hana High & Elem.	6.66	251	7.41	27	39**	6.65	6,924
Lahainaluna High	6.43	533	3.84	43	31	6.42	6,685
Waihee	5.86	202	6.36	30	30	5.85	6,088
Kihei	5.63	249	4.80	64	28	5.62	5,850
Puunene	4.59	222	5.97	46	22	4.59	4,775
Haiku	4.59	289	5.88	51	22	4.59	4,775
Total		5,261			655	Less District Projects:	$115,997 12,017 $103,980

** 1966 figures.

School	% of Eligible Children	1965-66 Enrollment	1965-66 Average Daily Absence (%)	1965-66 STEP Reading*	No. of Students in Program	% of District Allocation	Amount
HAWAII DISTRICT							
Kapiolani	17.14	712	4.98	42	201	17.47	$ 36,185
Hilo High	15.66	2,058	4.32	43	260	15.96	33,050
Konawaena High	14.32	984	5.30	35	144	14.60	30,236
Holualoa	7.05	296	5.58	30	80	7.18	14,876
Hilo Intermediate	6.17	995	3.22	57	62	6.29	13,027
Honaunau	5.71	249	6.04	35	58	5.82	12,062
Konawaena Elementary	4.72	667	4.67	51	45	4.81	9,970
Keaukaha	4.30	356	6.04	27	48	4.38	9,086
Kailua (Kona)	4.00	206	5.89	30	40	4.07	8,444
Honokohau-Kalaoa	3.01	101	5.36	42	40	4.00	8,283
Hookona	4.99	83	3.55	35	40	3.14	6,514
Naalehu	2.86	382	5.80	30	30	2.91	6,032
Laupahoehoe High	2.86	535	3.92	43	46	2.91	6,032
Waiakea Intermediate	2.86	651	2.51	70	40	2.91	6,032
Paauilo Intermediate	1.71	335	3.40	51	40	1.74	3,619
Pahoa	1.71	342	4.14	49	20	1.74	3,619
Total		8,952			1,194		$289,567
						Less District Projects:	82,500
							$207,067

APPENDIX C

ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE FOR COMPENSATORY EDUCATION
STATE OF HAWAII


GOVERNOR - STATE OF HAWAII
DEPARTMENT OF LABOR AND INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS DIRECTOR
UNIVERSITY OF HAWAII PRESIDENT
TEACHER CORPS
YOUTH DEVELOPMENT CENTER
UPWARD BOUND
DEPARTMENT OF HAWAIIAN HOME LANDS CHAIRMAN
ACT 4 COORDINATOR
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION SUPERINTENDENT
DIRECTOR OF FEDERAL PROGRAMS
DEPARTMENT OF LAND AND NATURAL RESOURCES CHAIRMAN
NEIGHBORHOOD YOUTH CORPS
JOB CORPS
DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL SERVICES DIRECTOR
DIRECTOR OF WORK EXPERIENCE
HAWAII OFFICE OF ECONOMIC OPPORTUNITY DIRECTOR
ACT 299 PROGRESSIVE NEIGHBORHOOD DIRECTOR
COORDINATOR FOR FOLLOW THROUGH AND SUMMER HEAD START PROGRAMS
ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT OF INSTRUCTIONAL SERVICES
ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT
DISTRICT SUPERINTENDENT
SCHOOL PRINCIPAL
P.L. 89-10 TITLE I
NEIGHBORHOOD YOUTH CORPS
ACT 4 HAWAIIAN HOMES PROJECTS
HEAD START
FOLLOW THROUGH
DIRECTOR OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION
DIRECTOR OF SPECIAL EDUCATION
DIRECTOR OF P.L. 89-10 TITLE I
DIRECTOR OF SECONDARY EDUCATION
WORK EXPERIENCE
COORDINATOR OF SPECIAL MOTIVATION PROGRAM
COORDINATOR OF NEIGHBORHOOD YOUTH CORPS
U.S. OFFICE OF ECONOMIC OPPORTUNITY
DELEGATE AGENCY
COMMUNITY ACTION PROGRAMS
MAYOR CITY & COUNTY OF HONOLULU
URBAN RENEWAL
MODEL CITIES PROGRAM
NEIGHBORHOOD YOUTH CORPS

APPENDIX D

(To be made one and eight copies) H.R.NO. 184

FOURTH LEGISLATURE, 1967
STATE OF HAWAII

COPY

HOUSE RESOLUTION

REQUESTING THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION TO INITIATE A FEASIBILITY STUDY IN "BUSING" STUDENTS FOR EQUALITY OF EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITY.

WHEREAS, in Massachusetts, California, Connecticut, Illinois and New York, certain school systems that are located in the ghettos utilized the innovative technique of "busing" students to selected schools that are located in educationally "prestigious" districts; and

WHEREAS, although the initial goal of the "busing programs" grew out of the explosive conflict of racially segregated schools, achievement test results reflected that the children performed as well or better scholastically than they were performing in their former neighborhood schools; parents were convinced that their youngsters were getting a more realistic preparation for life in a multi-socio-economic environment; and the youngsters' enthusiasm to remain in school was well documented in the reports made by the various busing projects; and

WHEREAS, there are many sources of financial support for busing projects including funds from federal grants, the Carnegie Corporation, and the Ford Foundation; and

WHEREAS, the uncompromisable goal of public education has always been equality of educational opportunity, to develop each youngster to his fullest physical, social, emotional and intellectual capacities; and the "busing programs" are one of the possible devices to insure equality of educational opportunity; now, therefore,

BE IT RESOLVED by the House of Representatives of the Fourth Legislature of the State of Hawaii, General Session of 1967, that the Department of Education be and is requested to investigate the feasibility of providing busing services to students who reside in limited environment communities including but not limited to the following guidelines: (1) equate the educational relevancy of "busing students" to fiscal practicality; (2) develop a plan for maximum integration with a minimum disruption of neighborhood school patterns; (3) develop a summer seminar for teachers who have never taught in schools that are located in limited environment; (4) work out a "buddy system" for students and parents of students who will be transferred to the new schools; (5) recommend innovative ways in which to finance such a massive project; (6) develop an experimental design to insure that integrated classes and extra services will upgrade the level of education of such students; (7) estimate cost for the operation of this project; and (8) evaluate and study programs that are currently in operation; and

BE IT FURTHER RESOLVED that the Department of Education submit this report prior to the 1969 Legislature but to submit a progress report prior to the 1968 Legislature; and

BE IT FURTHER RESOLVED that duly certified copies of this Resolution be forwarded to the Superintendent of Education, the Assistant Superintendent of Curriculum Services, the Assistant Superintendent of the Office of Research, the Director of the Facilities and Auxiliary Services Branch, and the Chairman of the Board of Education.

OFFERED BY: ______________________________

APPENDIX E

PATSY T. MINK
MEMBER AT LARGE
HAWAII

COMMITTEE ON EDUCATION AND LABOR
SELECT SUBCOMMITTEE ON EDUCATION
GENERAL SUBCOMMITTEE ON EDUCATION
GENERAL SUBCOMMITTEE ON LABOR

COMMITTEE ON INTERIOR AND INSULAR AFFAIRS
SUBCOMMITTEE ON TERRITORIAL AND INSULAR AFFAIRS
SUBCOMMITTEE ON NATIONAL PARKS AND RECREATION
SUBCOMMITTEE ON INDIAN AFFAIRS

Congreſs of the United States
House of Representatives
Washington, D.C. 20515

OFFICES:
WASHINGTON, D.C.
1527 LONGWORTH BUILDING
PHONE: 225-4906

HONOLULU, HAWAII
346-348 FEDERAL BUILDING
PHONE: 574-792

December 20, 1967

Mr. Ralph H. Kiyosaki
Superintendent
Department of Education
P. O. Box 2360
Honolulu, Hawaii 96804

Dear Ralph:

On your inquiry of December 12th regarding the early admission program for four-year olds in kindergarten and five-year olds in first grade, as it is written I can see no conflict with Title I projects under 89-10. I have discussed this with the Office of Education for confirmation.

My point which I raised when I talked with you on the phone during your brief stopover here in Washington enroute to Puerto Rico was that we must be careful in developing statewide policy. Once a program becomes part of the school program, as an integral part of it, the requirement is for State financial support. Once it is a program funded by the State, then Federal funds cannot later be used to substitute for the State funds. This is an absolute prohibition by regulation dated February 9, 1967, Section 116.17 (h) Elementary Secondary Education Act.

Once already the Federal officials have come to my office to request an explanation and I suppose to lodge a warning, regarding the legal interpretation of the budget page in the Revised Laws of Hawaii which show the total cost of the Education program, less Federal funds. They argued that this page proved prima facie that we were substituting Federal dollars for State educational programs. I called this to the attention of Mr. Yarberry, Mr. Tokushige, Mr. Masumotoya, Mr. Honda, Senator Yoshinaga, and others in 1966. So far, we have not had this matter pressed upon us, but I certainly do not want it on my conscience that you were not also forewarned.

I have always believed that since all Federal programs are supplementary in nature, they should be budgeted separately and presented to the Legislature and the public only for informational purposes, but never enacted as part of the State financial budget for education.

For the sake of clarity and conformity with the letter of the law, it seems to me that this additional bookkeeping is entirely warranted.

For example, take the matter of State policy regarding transportation. This is a State mandate. It has been put into the books of the Department. It must be financed by the State as a State program. No Federal subsidy can be forthcoming, because that would clearly be substituting Federal dollars for State dollars which are required to be spent by State policy. Even poor children who qualify for transportation subsidy cannot receive any Federal dollars once this is the general policy. Poor children can receive Federal bus subsidy only if their aid is *over and beyond* that which everybody else is entitled to receive under your regulations.

Thus this was my concern when I read that four-year old education may be considered to be part of the integral program of Education for Hawaii. If the State ever adopted a policy which said in effect that any child four years of age, of certain mental and physical attainment, *shall* be enrolled in a *special* class for *four-year olds,* then I would say that since rich or poor could qualify, this policy would be a limitation on the use of Federal Title I funds for four-year old education. Federal Title I funds could then only go for the education of poor four-year olds who did not meet the basic minimum mental and physical qualifications. The ones who do would have to have their education paid for by the State.

Your early admission program as I have read it, however, established no four-year old education program generally. It only allows certain few to be admitted to kindergarten early. This early admission program could never qualify for Federal funds, but I assume that you do not expect that it ever will. The early admission aspect would have to be paid for out of regular State kindergarten appropriations. Similarly early admission to first grade would have to be fully paid for out of State funds for first grade education.

You should explore with the administrators of the "impact program" whether all of the four-year olds in kindergarten early admissions can be counted for purposes of Federal impact aid - operational and construction funds both. Also the school lunch program needs to be looked at carefully to see if the four-year olds can qualify as lunch eaters. And so forth, a careful scrutiny must be made by your staff on each one of these areas to determine the real effect this program will have as it is liberalized, as I am sure it will be, by parental demand once it is instituted.

The regular pre-school "Headstart" type program under Title I, 89-10, can continue for the poor children. I cannot envision that the Federal government will ever be so unreasonable as to require testing for all to see if they should not be enrolled in the early admission program and their education therefore paid for by the State. I would agree that the Federal officials will presume that Headstart enrollees are by their very enrollment disadvantaged in their mental growth and achievement, and prima facie not qualified for any early admission program. I foresee problems in this regard only if the early admission program were expanded greatly, its requirements lowered and enrollment largely a matter of parental choice.

The main principle is that 89-10 is for special education for the disadvantaged; and the word special has been ruled to mean over and above what the State is required to do and is doing generally. Any program that is supplementary, provides extra books over and above the regular State allotment, provides extra personnel over and above the regular State assignment, etc., would be allowable under 89-10.

I hope this letter has been of some help to you, and if not, I shall be pleased to discuss this further with you. I shall be home from December 26th until January 4th.

Mele Kalikimaka!

Very truly yours,

Patsy T. Mink

PATSY T. MINK
Member of Congress

APPENDIX F

(To be made one and eight copies)

H.R.NO. 274

FOURTH LEGISLATURE, 1967
STATE OF HAWAII

COPY

HOUSE RESOLUTION

REQUESTING THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION TO REVIEW ADMINISTRATIVE PRACTICES AND PROGRAMS OF ALL THE SCHOOLS LOCATED IN LIMITED ENVIRONMENT COMMUNITIES.

WHEREAS, the primary goal of public education is to insure the development of each individual to his maximum potentialities by insuring equal educational opportunities; and

WHEREAS, according to certain educational practitioners in our State, students who attend schools that are located in limited environment communities do not experience equal educational opportunities; and

WHEREAS, these educationalists claim that students who attend schools in limited environments are usually associated with a whole strata of school deficiencies which includes: poor academic achievement; abnormally high school failures, absenteeism, class cuts, and dropouts; high incidences of mal-behavioral problems; and intensive health and nutritional problems; and

WHEREAS, practitioners cohesively attribute these school deficiencies to budget limitations, staff inadequacies, insufficient facilities, lack of understanding of the nature of cultural deprivation and its many manifestation, outmoded or inappropriate teaching methods and materials and excessive teacher loads; and

WHEREAS, most legislators view the educational inadequacy and inequality at schools located in limited environment communities as a gross waste of human resources and charge that a critical evaluation of all the curricular offerings, especially the new "trial and error" programs that claim to be the panacea for academic deficiencies, and their administration is in order; now, therefore,

BE IT RESOLVED by the House of Representatives of the Fourth Legislature of the State of Hawaii, General Session of 1967, that the Department of Education be and is requested to investigate all facets of educational endeavors that would insure equal educational opportunities for students who attend schools in limited environment communities including but not limited to the following guidelines: (1) review all administrative practices of schools located in limited environment communities and develop a state-wide administrative expectations of all educational officers, especially for District Superintendents and principals; (2) establish criteria to determine whether an area is a limited environment community; (3) establish state-wide minimal educational expectations of all students who attend culturally deprived schools with an incremental plan to insure adequate academic achievement; (4) review contemporary programs and unite all the fragmented offerings into a meaningful program; (5) recommend innovative ways in which to finance educational programs that could be utilized in limited environment communities; (6) recommend ways to improve in-service training, as they currently reflect a rather hollow, limited, and even sterile orientation; (7) review the organizational structure of the federal aid programs, as they require critical analysis and revision; (8) with regards to fiscal feasibility, establish an effective student-teacher ratio for schools located in limited environment; (9) comprehensively reflect upon the nature of cultural deprivation and its many manifestation; and (10) recommend feasible pedagogy and learning materials that could be utilized for cultural deprived students; and

BE IT FURTHER RESOLVED that the Department of Education submit this report prior to the 1969 Legislature but to submit a progress report prior to the 1968 Legislature; and

BE IT FURTHER RESOLVED that duly certified copies of this Resolution be forwarded to the Superintendent of Education, the Assistant Superintendent of Curriculum Services, the Assistant Superintendent of Research, the Director of the Hawaii Curriculum Center, the Chairman of the Board of Education, and to all the District Superintendents.

OFFERED BY: ______________________________

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